DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 037 526 VT 009 907

AUTHOR	Piven, Herman; Alcabes, Abraham
TITLE	The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy. Volume 2, Correctional Institutions.
INSTITUTION	Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO	JD-Pub-565
PUB DATE	69
NOTE	125p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 (FS17.2:C86/2/V.2, $1.25)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS	*Corrective Institutions, Counseling, *Manpower Needs, *National Programs, *Policy, Tables (Data)
IDENTIFIERS	*Criminal Justice, Custody Staff, Diagnostic and Treatment Staff

ABSTRACT

This is the second part of a study about correctional institutions which focuses on manpower and training for criminal justice with special reference to correctional institutions. The first part of the report presents a schema for the assessment of manpower shortages and strategies. The remainder of the document analyzes the custodial staff, the diagnostic and treatment staff, the general counseling staff, and the outlook for change in corrections. Appended is information on jails and workhouses, major correctional institutions, probation and parole, law enforcement systems, colleges and universities, professional schools, and university crime and delinquency centers. Volume I on probation and parole is available as VT 009 906. A third volume will address the problem of law enforcement. (BC)

ED037526

The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy,

VOLUME 2

Correctional Institutions

Herman Piven
Abraham Alcabes

Pilot Study of Correctional Training and Manpower

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Social and Rehabilitation Service
Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development

1969

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

VT009907

CONTENTS

Page

Foreword -- X

Acknowledgments ---------------------------------- XI

Chapter 1. **Schema for the Assessment of Manpower Shortages and Strategies** 1

Introduction -- 1

Dimensions of the Manpower Schema and Its Applicability to Various Fields -- 1

Sample and Methodology for Analysis of Manpower in Correctional Institutions -- 4

Overview of Manpower for Correctional Institutions Systems -- 7

Chapter 2. **Application of the Manpower Schema to Custody Staff** 11

Extent of Manpower Shortages for Custody Personnel---- 11

Availability of Qualified Personnel for Custody Positions in Correctional Institutions -- 13

Feasibility of Expanding the Pool of Corrections Graduates for Custody Positions in Correctional Institutions------- 15

Strategies and Costs Required to Expand the Pool of Corrections Graduates for Custody Positions---------------- 20

Summary and Conclusions-- 21

Chapter 3. **Application of the Manpower Schema to Diagnostic and Treatment Staff** 23

Extent of Manpower Shortages for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel -- 23

Availability of Qualified Personnel for Diagnostic and Treatment Positions in Correctional Institutions-------- 25

Feasibility of Expanding the Pool of Professional Graduates for Diagnostic and Treatment Positions in Correctional Institutions -- 29

Strategies and Costs Required to Expand the Pool of Professional Graduates for Diagnostic and Treatment Positions in Correctional Institutions---------------------- 39

Summary and Conclusions-- 41

Chapter 4. **Application of the Manpower Schema to Classification and General Counseling Staff** 44

Extent of Manpower Shortages for Classification and General Counseling Personnel-- 44

Availability of Qualified Personnel for Classification and General Counseling Positions in Correctional Institutions -- 45

Feasibility of Expanding the Pool of Social Work Graduates for Classification and General Counseling Positions in Correctional Institutions -- 50

Page

Strategies and Costs Required to Expand the Pool of Social Work Graduates for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions 54
Summary and Conclusions 60

Chapter 5. **Corrections as a Deprived Field of Service and the Outlook for Change** 62
Correctional Manpower: An Overview of Shortages and Available Personnel for Probation/Parole and Correctional Institutions 62
The Outlook for Change 67
A National Network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers: The Need 67
Recommended Programs for the Center 68
Recommended Administrative Structure for the Center 69
Recommended Staff, Stipends, and Funding for the Center 69

Appendix

A. **Manpower Employed and Needed: Jails and Workhouses** 71

B. **Major Correctional Institution Systems** 76

C. **Major Probation/Parole Systems** 78

D. **Major Law Enforcement Systems** 79

E. **Colleges and Universities** 81

F. **Professional Schools of Social Work, Clinical Psychology, Psychiatry, and Law** 84

G. **Existing University Crime and Delinquency Centers** 86

H. **Questionnaires** 88
Correctional Institutions 88
Colleges and Universities 97
Doctoral Programs of Clinical Psychology 104

References 109

Index 111

Tables and Charts

Page

Table 1. Responding Correctional Institution Systems Classified by Region 5

Table 2. Correctional Institution Systems in the Population and Sample by Level of Government and Type of Facility 5

Table 3. Estimated Size of Staff Employed in Correctional Institution Systems in the United States by Work Role and Type of System, End of 1965 7

Table 4. Estimated Number and Rates of Manpower Shortage for Staff in Correctional Institution Systems in the United States, 1966–67 8

Table 5. Estimated Size of Staff Employed and Needed in Correctional Institution Systems in the United States, 1966–67 10

Page

Table 6. Estimated Number of Custody Personnel Employed and Needed in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67 ____ 12

Table 7. Education Recommended by Correctional Institution Executives to Qualify Personnel for Custody Staff ____ 13

Table 8. Educational Qualifications Required for Custody Staff of Correctional Institutions ____ 14

Table 9. Typical Education of Custody Staff in Correctional Institution Systems ____ 14

Table 10. Education Recommended to Qualify Personnel for Custody Staff by Chairmen of Departments that Offer a Concentration in Corrections ____ 16

Table 11. Readiness of Academic Departments With a Concentration in Corrections to Expand Student Training for Work With Offenders if Federal Funds Are Made Available ____ 16

Table 12. Training Resources Needed by Departments With a Concentration in Corrections for Programs in Corrections ____ 17

Table 13. Education Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel as Custody Staff in Prisons and Reformatories ____ 18

Table 14. Extent to Which Universities and Professional Schools Legitimate Undergraduate Programs With a Concentration in Corrections ____ 19

Table 15. University Departments for Which Correctional Institution Systems Are Willing to Provide Fieldwork Training Facilities ____ 19

Table 16. Extent of Support for Undergraduate Programs in Corrections ____ 20

Table 17. Beginning Salaries of Custody Staff in Correctional Institutions Compared With Beginning Salaries of Law Enforcement Officers ____ 21

Table 18. Estimated Number of Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel Employed and Needed in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67 ____ 24

Table 19. Education Recommended by Correctional Institution Executives to Qualify Personnel for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff ____ 26

Table 20. Location of Responding Clinical Psychology Schools by Region ____ 26

Table 21. Positions Usually Filled by Clinical Psychology Students Who Go Into Corrections Upon Graduation ____ 27

Table 22. Location of Responding Psychiatric Residency Centers by Region ____ 28

Table 23. Education Recommended by Deans of Professional Schools to Qualify Personnel for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff in Correctional Institutions ____ 30

Page

Table 24. Extent to Which Professional Schools of Clinical Psychology and Social Work Legitimate Specialized Programs With a Concentration in Corrections at Schools Such as Their Own 31

Table 25. Readiness of Professional Schools to Expand Student Training for Work With Offenders if Federal Funds Are Made Available 32

Table 26. Resources Needed by Professional Schools for Training Programs in Work With Offenders 33

Table 27. Education Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff in Correctional Institutions 33

Table 28. Extent to Which Universities and Professional Schools Legitimate Specialized Programs With a Concentration in Corrections at Schools of Social Work and Clinical Psychology 36

Table 29. Agency Willingness to Provide Fieldwork Training Facilities for Social Work and Psychology Students 37

Table 30. Extent of Support for Correctional (Criminal Justice) Training Programs in Schools of Social Work and Psychiatry 38

Table 31. Estimated Number of Classification and General Counseling Personnel Employed and Needed in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67 45

Table 32. Education Recommended by Correctional Institution Executives to Qualify Personnel for Classification and General Counseling Staff 46

Table 33. Typical Education of Classification and General Counseling Personnel in Correctional Institutions 46

Table 34. Educational Achievement of Social Welfare Personnel Who Provide Services to Adult Offenders 47

Table 35. Location of Responding Social Work Schools by Region 47

Table 36. Estimated Distribution of Personnel Employed in Correctional Agencies and Positions Classifiable as Social Work, End of 1965 49

Table 37. Education Recommended by Social Work Deans to Qualify Personnel for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions 51

Table 38. Extent to Which Social Work and Clinical Psychology Are Recommended to Qualify Personnel for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions 52

Table 39. Distribution of Social Work Students in Field Instruction and Distribution of Social Welfare Labor Force by Practice Fields 57

Table 40. School Training Patterns in Relation to Professional Needs of Social Welfare Practice Fields 58

Table 41. Recent and Projected Recruitment of Social Workers to Correctional Institutions if Social Work Schools Contributed a Fair Share of Their Master's Graduates 58

Page

Table 42. Beginning Salaries for Social Work Staff and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions Compared with Beginning Salaries of M.S.W. Graduates 60

Table A. Responding Jails and Workhouses Classified by Region 71

Table B. Estimated Size of Staff Employed and Needed in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67, Excluding Administrative Staff 72

Table C. Estimated Number of Administrative Staff Employed and Needed by the Standard of Official Public Policy in Jails and Workhouses, 1966 73

Table D. Estimated Number of Custody Staff Employed and Needed in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67 73

Table E. Estimated Number of Diagnostic and Treatment Staff Employed and Needed in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67 75

Table F. Estimated Number of Classification and General Counseling Staff Employed and Needed in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67 75

Table G. Major Correctional Institution Systems Represented in the Policy Study by Level of Government and Type of Facility 76

Table H. Major Correctional Institution Systems Represented in the Policy Study by Region 76

Table I. Proportion of Major Correctional Institution Systems Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study 77

Table J. Proportion of Major Probation/Parole Systems Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study 78

Table K. Major Law Enforcement Systems Represented in the Policy Study by Level of Government 79

Table L. Major Law Enforcement Systems Represented in the Policy Study by Region 79

Table M. Proportion of Major Law Enforcement Systems Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study 80

Table N. Academic Institutions Represented in the Policy Study by Region 81

Table O. Academic Institutions Classified by College Level 81

Table P. Proportion of Academic Institutions Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study 82

Table Q. Professional Schools Represented in the Policy Study by Region 85

Table R. Proportion of Professional Schools Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study 85

Table S. Existing University Centers Classified by Region 86

Table T. Existing University Centers Classified by Level of College at Which They Are Located 87

Table U. Classification of Organizational Units Previously Cited as Special University Centers for Training in the Criminal Justice Fields 87

Page

Chart I. Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Staff in Correctional Institution Systems in the United States, 1966–67 -- 9

Chart II. Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Custody Personnel in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67 ---- 12

Chart III. Estimated Manpower Needed as Custody Staff During 1966–67 and the Availability of Corrections Graduates for Recruitment ---- 15

Chart IV. Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Custody Staff in Correctional Institutions, Assuming Current Rate of Recruitment of Corrections Graduates ---- 21

Chart V. Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Custody Staff in Correctional Institutions, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Success ---- 22

Chart VI. Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67 ---- 25

Chart VII. Manpower Needs for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff in Correctional Institutions, 1966–67, and the Availability of Qualified Personnel for Recruitment ---- 29

Chart VIII. Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel in Correctional Institutions with Additional Pools of Professional School Graduates, Assuming Current Rate of Recruitment ---- 40

Chart IX. Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel in Correctional Institutions with Additional Pools of Professional Graduates, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Success ---- 41

Chart X. Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Classification and General Counseling Personnel in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67 ---- 46

Chart XI. Manpower Needs for Classification and General Counseling Staff During 1966–67 and the Availability of Qualified Personnel for Recruitment ---- 50

Chart XII. Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions With an Additional Pool of Social Work Graduates, Assuming Current Rate of Recruitment ---- 55

Chart XIII. Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions With an Additional Pool of Social Work Graduates, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Success ---- 56

Chart XIV. Estimated Size of Staff Employed and Needed in Correctional Systems of the United States, 1966–67 ---- 62

Chart XV. Estimated Size of Treatment Staff and Custody Staff Employed and Needed in Correctional Systems of the United States, 1966–67 ---- 63

Chart XVI. Estimated Additional Manpower Needed in Correctional Systems of the United States, 1966 to 1969, According to Assessments of Top Correctional Executives ---- 64

Page

Chart XVII. Extent of Consensus on Formal Qualifications for Correctional Practice 64

Chart XVIII. Official Manpower Vacancies in Correctional Systems for Custody Staff and Treatment Staff During 1966 and the Availability of Qualified Personnel for Recruitment 65

Chart XIX. Estimated Cost of Filling Official Vacancies for Custody Staff and Treatment Staff With an Additional Pool of Qualified Personnel, at the Current Rate of Recruitment From Professional Schools 65

Chart XX. Estimated Cost of Filling Official Vacancies for Custody Staff and Treatment Staff With an Additional Pool of Qualified Personnel, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Success From Professional Specializations 66

Chart A. Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Staff in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67 73

Chart B. Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Custody Staff in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67 74

Chart C. Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67 74

Chart D. Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67 75

Foreword

This is the second volume in a series that comprehensively reports on the need and availability of qualified manpower for the field of criminal justice.

This publication surveys the area of correctional institutions; Volume I deals with the areas of probation and parole.

Through these volumes, Dr. Herman Piven and Dr. Abraham Alcabes, the authors, are making an important contribution toward the resolution of a critical contemporary problem—the serious shortage of men and women to work in the field of criminal justice. Their approach and their findings are likely to affect discussions of policy in agencies and schools for many years to come.

Ralph M. Susman
Deputy Director
Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to express our deep appreciation to the project staff whose assistance has been invaluable in the preparation of this volume: Eileen Brower, Jack Maisel, Florence Parkinson, Johannah Turner, and especially to Goldie Sherman.

We wish to thank the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, sponsors of the project. The study was conducted under a grant from the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development. We are especially indebted to Milton Rector, Ralph Susman, Israel Gerver, Jack Otis, Bernard Russell, Jack Scanlon, Albert Held, and Robert J. Rosenberg for their valuable advice and encouragement.

We also wish to offer our thanks to the many universities and Criminal Justice agencies throughout the country that provided the information for this study.

About the Authors

DR. HERMAN PIVEN has been full-time director of the project. He has taught on the graduate level in social work for a number of years and is now Director of Research and Program Evaluation, New York City Office of Probation.

DR. ABRAHAM ALCABES has been co-director of the project. He is now associate professor at the Columbia University School of Social Work.

CHAPTER 1

Schema for the Assessment of Manpower Shortages and Strategies

Introduction

This study of correctional institutions constitutes one phase of a larger project on manpower and training for the field of Criminal Justice. It reflects a continued effort to develop new solutions for the shortage of qualified manpower in Criminal Justice agencies.[1] The guidelines in this study are developed through systematic empirical assessment of manpower shortages and standards and of several strategies designed to deal with the need for qualified personnel in Criminal Justice.

The three volumes of this study are organized by separate fields so as to permit convenient use by readers with particular interests. Certain sections of each volume are applicable to all three fields and are therefore summarized to minimize repetition. A major section that analyzes findings on new institutional resources for Criminal Justice is contained in its entirety in volume 1. The results of the analysis are summarized in chapter 5 of this volume.

The "manpower crisis" in corrections has received widespread attention. It is often attributed to a static public policy that fails to provide sufficient positions or salaries. Another explanation for it focuses on the failure of universities and professional schools to provide an adequate supply of graduates who are trained for work with offenders.

However, discussions of the nature and extent of the manpower shortage and the solutions designed to alleviate it seldom specify the critical relationship between recruitment conditions and training patterns. Most assessments and recommendations are too global to permit the specification required for viable policy; and rarely are the bases and ramifications of particular recommendations articulated.

The manpower schema developed by this study has proved to be of great value in analyzing the nature, extent, and location of manpower problems in probation/parole and correctional institutions. We believe that the schema can readily be applied to other fields, especially those of social welfare. The fact that over 1,900 Criminal Justice agencies and academic institutions took the time and trouble to complete the extensive policy questionnaire required by the schema demonstrates its relevance to the vital concerns of these organizations with problems of manpower and education for Criminal Justice.

Dimensions of the Manpower Schema and Its Applicability to Various Fields

The central dimensions of the schema to organize and analyze data on manpower problems and solutions are as follows:

I. Extent of the manpower shortage in each position, according to designated criteria [e.g., top executives report that about 8,825 additional custody personnel are needed in correctional institutions other than jails for the most effective operation of these institutions (see chapter 2)].

II. Availability of qualified personnel for each position, according to designated criteria of relevant sources [e.g., approximately 80 college graduates with a concentration in corrections are available each year for all custody staff positions; correctional training is the standard most frequently advocated by executive employers (see chapter 2)].

---

[1] See Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy* (Washington, D.C.: Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968), vol. 1—Probation/Parole and vol. 3—Law Enforcement (forthcoming).

III. Feasibility of expanding the designated pool of qualified personnel, considering internal conditions of the training institutions (e.g., 100 percent of departments with a concentration in corrections are ready to expand student training for work with offenders if funds are made available) and external conditions of its environment [e.g., 39.3 percent of college presidents and other key academic groups do not legitimate undergraduate programs with a concentration in corrections (see chapter 2)].

IV. Strategies and costs of expanding the designated pool of qualified personnel sufficient to provide a full complement of needed manpower [e.g., it would cost approximately $12.9 million to provide the minimal number of corrections graduates needed for custody staff in correctional institution systems, assuming perfect recruitment success (see chapter 2)].

V. Strategies for improving agency efficiency in recruiting the designated pool of qualified personnel [e.g., substantially increased salaries over the average of $4,150 per year paid to custody staff (see chapter 2)].

VI. Strategies designed to alleviate the manpower shortage by recruiting from sources other than the designated pool of qualified personnel [eg., no secondary pool of qualified manpower for custody staff can be identified by the standards of correctional executives].

VII. A strategy to create new institutional resources designed to add trained manpower and relevant scientific knowledge for the particular field [e.g., a national network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers for training, research, demonstration, and consultation is strongly supported by 86 percent of 1,115 Criminal Justice systems and academic institutions (see chapter 5)].

This volume is organized around the specific questions and findings required to apply the manpower schema to several key work roles in correctional institutions. However, the manpower schema is also applicable to various other fields and occupations, which can be illustrated by describing how it has been applied to manpower analysis of probation and parole, as follows.[2]

I. EXTENT OF MANPOWER SHORTAGE

1. How many professional staff are employed in all probation/parole systems (probation/parole officers, administrators and supervisors, and training officers)?

2. How many people are needed to fill all such positions?

3. What are the criteria that determine the number of probation/parole personnel needed?

II. AVAILABILITY OF QUALIFIED PERSONNEL

1. What formal standards determine who is qualified to work as a probation/parole officer, administrator, or training officer?

2. What are the most appropriate sources for determining these standards?

3. How many qualified people, according to the designated criteria, are now employed as probation/parole officers, administrators and supervisors, and training officers?

4. How large a pool of qualified personnel is being made available each year to fill the designated probation/parole positions? Where do the other qualified personnel go?

5. Is the annual pool of qualified personnel that is recruited to probation/parole systems sufficient to meet the manpower need?

III. FEASIBILITY OF EXPANDING THE POOL OF QUALIFIED PERSONNEL

A. *Internal conditions of relevant training institutions:*

1. Are the training institutions that produce qualified probation/parole personnel likely to increase their output in the near future?

2. Do these training institutions concur on the standards of what constitutes a qualified probation/parole officer, administrator, etc.?

3. Do the administration and faculty of these training institutions legitimate special programs designed to increase the number of graduates with a specialization for practice in probation/parole?

4. What specific resources are needed by the training institutions to increase their output of graduates for probation/parole practice?

---

[2] See Piven and Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment With Guidelines for New Policy, op. cit.*, vol. 1 for an analysis of findings addressed to the questions generated by the schema.

B. *External conditions in the university and professional complex:*

1. Is there consensus among university administrators and faculty of other schools and departments regarding the formal standard for a qualified probation/parole officer, administrator, etc.?

2. Do these related academic and professional groups legitimate special programs designed to increase the number of graduates with a specialized training for probation/parole practice?

3. To what extent have these related groups in the university and professional complex previously supported programs that produce graduates with specialized training for probation/parole?

IV. STRATEGIES AND COSTS OF EXPANSION

1. How much does it cost to train a qualified probation/parole officer?

2. What is the total cost required to train a sufficient number of additional probation/parole personnel to meet the manpower need—assuming the current rate of recruitment?

3. What is the total cost required to train a sufficient number of probation/parole personnel—assuming perfect success in recruiting all recent graduates to probation/parole positions?

4. Is probation/parole getting its fair share of graduates? How is this fair share determined?

5. Which training institutions produce a high ratio and which a low ratio of graduates trained for practice in probation/parole systems?

6. How would the manpower shortage be affected if all of the designated training institutions produced their fair share of graduates for practice in probation/parole?

V. STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING THE EFFICIENCY OF PROBATION/PAROLE SYSTEMS IN RECRUITING QUALIFIED PERSONNEL

1. How do salary levels of probation/parole personnel compare with those of graduates going into related practice fields?

2. What specific professional conditions are likely to increase the efficiency with which probation/parole systems recruit qualified professionals?

3. Which particular target groups of qualified professionals are the most favorable for a higher rate of recruitment to probation/parole positions (women, public assistance and child welfare personnel, etc.)?

VI. STRATEGIES FOR RECRUITMENT OF ALTERNATIVE PROBATION/PAROLE MANPOWER

1. Do a substantial proportion of standard-setters endorse a secondary manpower pool for probation/parole?

2. How large is this secondary pool, and what are its prospects for expansion?

VII. STRATEGIES TO CREATE NEW INSTITUTIONAL RESOURCES DESIGNED TO PROVIDE ADDITIONAL CRIMINAL JUSTICE MANPOWER AND NEW CRIMINAL JUSTICE KNOWLEDGE

1. New institutional resources appear necessary insofar as the following conditions exist:

a. A need for qualified manpower that is far greater than the number now employed

b. A relatively few qualified persons becoming available from existing training institutions

c. A major expansion of training programs and personnel that is costly and probably not feasible

d. Increased efficiency in recruitment that is not apt to reduce substantially the need for qualified manpower

e. Recruitment from secondary sources that will not add appreciably to the pool of available personnel and may be undesirable in any event because it represents a change in standards

2. What new institutional resources may be created to upgrade existing personnel and recruit substantial numbers of qualified persons who would otherwise go elsewhere?

a. What support is available for this new type of institution?

b. What programs are endorsed for its operation?

c. What should its administrative structure be?

d. Who should comprise its faculty or staff?

e. What means are likely to best ensure its access to key targets for training and recruitment?

f. What sources can provide its funds?

The task of developing a rational manpower policy for probation/parole or any other field must depend on obtaining empirical data to answer the kinds of questions outlined in the above schema. The task is further complicated when a field or position requires a particular type of work experience or set of personality characteristics in conjunction with formal training. For example, qualifications for a training school superintendent may include a certain amount and type of correctional experience in addition to professional training in public administration. An alternative set of qualifications may require clinical practice with children in addition to professional training in social work.

Insofar as additional qualifications can be clearly identified and established, they can be built into the component parts of the manpower schema. *However, the failure to specify qualifications clearly, or the absence of a reasonable consensus on the specific qualifications, makes it all but impossible to assess manpower needs empirically and to formulate manpower and training policy rationally.*

The remainder of this volume is devoted to the task of assessing the need and availability of qualified manpower for correctional institutions through the application of the manpower schema.

Sample and Methodology for Analysis of Manpower in Correctional Institutions[3]

In order to apply the manpower schema to correctional institution systems, relevant data were obtained from the populations listed below.[4]

Type of organization	Number of organizations Surveyed	Number of organizations Responded	Return rate percent
Criminal Justice systems:			
Correctional institution systems (other than jails and workhouses)	432	267	61.8
Major probation and parole systems	247	146	59.1
Major law enforcement systems	237	108	45.6
Colleges and universities (other than professional schools)	838	511	61.0
Professional schools:			
Social work	58	50	86.2
Clinical psychology	67	44	65.7
Psychiatry	234	184	78.6
Law	133	83	62.4
University Crime and Delinquency Centers	27	26	96.3
Total	2,273	[a] 1,419	[a] 62.4

[a] Excludes late returns and completed questionnaires that did not contain policy items for this study.

The composition of populations other than correctional institution systems is described in appendixes B to G.[5]

Correctional Institution Systems.[6] The 267 correctional institution systems from which data were drawn for this analysis constitute a 62 percent return of the

---

[3] This analysis excludes local jails and workhouses. Manpower for these institutions is considered separately in app. A.

[4] A substantial number of additional organizations completed questionnaires for the project. These organizations are not represented here because policy items were omitted from their manpower, training, and education questionnaires. See vols. 1 and 3 of this series for analyses of the need for qualified manpower in probation/parole and law enforcement, respectively.

[5] A more detailed description of the Criminal Justice and college populations is found in Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement* (Washington, D.C.: Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1966), Source Books I to IV.

[6] A correctional institution system was defined as follows: all prisons, reformatories, training schools, camps, halfway houses, diagnostic centers, jails and workhouses, and other correctional facilities and their personnel which operated as a separate administrative unit under the direction of the same top executive. When juvenile and adult facilities and personnel were divided into separate administrative units, each with its own top executive, they were treated as two systems.

432 systems in the United States which were listed in relevant directories[7] and to which project questionnaires were mailed from February to June 1966.[8]

The distribution of responding correctional institution systems among nine regions of the United States is given in table 1.

The composition of correctional institution systems (excluding jails and workhouses) is shown in table 2 by level of government and type of facility.

The correctional institution systems responding to project questionnaires are located in all 50 States and the District of Columbia. California is represented by the largest number of correctional institution systems (38), followed by Pennsylvania (14), New York (13), Michigan (13), and Ohio (12). Those States with the smallest representation are Maine, Maryland, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and Vermont, each represented by one correctional institution system.

A detailed questionnaire of 16 pages (long form) was mailed to 210 "major" institutional systems. These systems were of the following types: (1) all systems

Table 1.—*Responding Correctional Institution Systems Classified by region*

Region[a]	Number and percent of responding systems: Number	Percent
New England	(15)	5.6
Middle Atlantic	(35)	13.1
East North Central	(43)	16.1
West North Central	(33)	12.4
South Atlantic	(31)	11.6
East South Central	(14)	5.2
West South Central	(16)	6.0
Mountain	(24)	9.0
Pacific	(56)	21.0
Total	(267)	100.0

[a] The 9 regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation for purposes of their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

Table 2.—*Correctional Institution Systems in the Population and Sample by Level of Government and Type of Facility*

Level of government and type of facility	Number of systems in the United States	Number and percent of responding systems: Number	Percent
State and Federal systems with facilities designed for:			
Adults[a] only (e.g., prisons and reformatories)	(41)	(35)	85
Juveniles only (e.g., training schools)	(44)	(32)	73
Adults and juveniles	(15)	(13)	87
Subtotal	(100)	[b](80)	80
City and county systems with facilities designed for:			
Juveniles only (e.g., training schools)	(43)	(28)	65
Adults and juveniles	[c](6)	[c](6)	([c])
Subtotal	(49)	(34)	69
Juvenile detention homes[d]	(216)	(125)	58
Private institutions for juveniles	(67)	(28)	42
Total	(432)	(267)	62

[a] Includes "older youth" not classified as juvenile within the responding jurisdiction.

[b] Represents 78 State systems and 2 systems from the District of Columbia.

[c] Six systems, originally thought to be county jails, indicated otherwise; they apparently have facilities for both adults and juveniles.

[d] Three detention homes are on the State level. All other detention homes are on the city or county level.

---

[7] Listings for correctional institution systems were drawn from the following sources:

1. American Correctional Association, *Directory, State and Federal Correctional Institutions of the United States of America, Canada, England, and Scotland* (Washington, D.C.: 1965).
2. Charles E. Lawrence, *Directory of Public Training Schools Serving Delinquent Children* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Children's Bureau, 1964).
3. *Directory for Exceptional Children* (Boston: Porter Sargent, 1965).
4. New York State Department of Social Welfare, *Directory of Child-Caring Institutions and Agencies* (New York: 1962).
5. National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Directory of Detention Homes* (New York: 1964).

[8] Project questionnaires were also sent to a one-seventh random sample of jails and workhouses in each State. Of the 488 jails and workhouses in the sample, 67 (14 percent) responded. Findings for these jails and workhouses are analyzed separately in app. A.

on the State and Federal levels; [9] (2) county and city systems providing training school facilities for juveniles; [10] and (3) private correctional institutions for juveniles.[11] It was believed that these systems were more likely to have larger offender populations, to employ a larger staff, and to engage in extensive training. Of the 210 major correctional institution systems in the United States, 65 percent (N=136) completed questionnaires for the project. A briefer questionnaire of 6 pages was mailed to the remaining 222 "minor" systems (excluding jails and workhouses). The return rate from these systems, consisting mainly of juvenile detention homes, was 59 percent.

As can be seen below, the composition of the sample is very similar to that of the population of major and minor systems.

	Population		Sample	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Major	48.6	(210)	50.9	(136)
Minor	51.4	(222)	49.1	(131)
Total	100.0	(432)	100.0	(267)

The survey further differentiated between juvenile and "adult" systems.[12] In an analysis of manpower it is critical to make this distinction because the systems are often organized differently and their work roles and qualifications may differ. Findings that do not distinguish between custody staff and cottage parents, for example, may fail to identify a type of manpower need that is critical in one instance but not in another.

Similarly, total or average manpower figures that are not specified in terms of juvenile or "adult" systems are apt to be misleading. For example, the overall average of custody staff for all correctional institution systems is 110. However, the mean for juvenile systems is 18 custody staff members compared with 650 for "adult" systems.

A further reason for separating juvenile and "adult" systems is owing to the scope of institutional facilities. Juvenile systems have an average of two institutional facilities per system. "Adult" systems have an average of more than eight (8.1) institutional facilities per system. *Therefore, the total number of institutional facilities represented by the 370 juvenile systems in the United States that are described throughout this study is 740. The total number of institutional facilities represented by the 62 "adult" systems in the United States that are described in this study is 502.* The rate of questionnaire return from juvenile systems in the survey is 57.6 percent; it is 87.1 percent from "adult" systems.

The distribution of each of these two types of systems in the population and in the sample is shown below.

	Population		Sample	
Type of system	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Systems with institutions for juveniles	85.6	(370)	79.8	(213)
Systems with institutions for "adults" [a]	14.4	(62)	20.2	(54)
Total	100.0	(432)	100.0	(267)

[a] This includes systems with facilites for adults only, or for both adults and juveniles.

---

[9] Drawn from American Correctional Association, *op. cit.* Eight institutional systems from this population were subsequently removed (and the number adjusted to 100) when eight States initially assumed to administer their adult and juvenile institutions in two separate systems responded as one system. The 100 institutional systems included were: 97 under State jurisdiction, one Federal system, and two systems located in the District of Columbia.

[10] Drawn from Lawrence, *op. cit.* Juvenile State institutions in this directory were excluded from this category because they had already been included under State systems. One local juvenile training school originally included in this population was subsequently removed (and the number adjusted to 43) when the project received a letter indicating that the institution was no longer in operation.

[11] Drawn from: (1) *Directory for Exceptional Children, op. cit.*; and (2) New York State Department of Social Welfare, *op. cit.* Two private institutions initially included in this population were later removed (and the number adjusted to 67) when they sent letters indicating that they did not accept court referrals and so were not "correctional" institutions.

[12] A juvenile system is defined as a correctional institution system that maintains institutional facilities designed exclusively for juveniles. An "adult" system is defined as a correctional institution system that maintains institutional facilities designed for adult offenders. Some "adult" systems also maintain one or more facilities designed for juveniles or older youth.

All manpower findings reported in this volume are based on figures that are calculated separately for juvenile and "adult" systems.

An overview of manpower in correctional institutions is presented in the section below. The following chapters will specify the manpower shortages and availability of qualified personnel for three of the essential personnel groups in correctional institutions: (1) custody staff; (2) diagnostic and treatment staff; and (3) classification and general counseling staff.

Overview of Manpower for Correctional Institution Systems

The findings of this section describe the manpower employed in 432 correctional institution systems that maintain a total of approximately 1,242 institutional facilities.[13] The personnel under consideration here occupy the following work roles: (1) administrative staff; (2) custody staff; (3) cottage parents; (4) classification and general counseling staff; and (5) diagnostic and treatment staff.

The overview will first describe the number of such personnel employed in all systems and then treat juvenile and "adult" systems separately. The extent of manpower shortages will then be identified both by number and by rates.

NUMBER EMPLOYED. The manpower figures reported below are for all correctional institutions in the United States except local jails at the end of 1965. The data refer to full-time personnel in the five work roles identified previously and do not include clerical or maintenance staff.

All Correctional Institution Systems. An estimated 72,000 full-time staff members were employed in all 432 correctional institution systems existing in the United States at the end of 1965 (see table 3). About two-thirds of these persons were employed as custody staff, primarily in adult institutions. Only about 5 percent (3,800) were employed as diagnostic and treatment staff (clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, or social workers).

Systems With Institutions for Juveniles. About 24,300 full-time personnel were employed in juvenile correctional systems. The typical training school or other juvenile institution employed about 33 staff members. The ratio of custody staff to diagnostic and treatment staff was more than 2 to 1 in these institutions.

Systems With Institutions for "Adults." About 47,400 full-time personnel were employed in correctional institution systems with facilities designed for adults or for both adults and juveniles. The typical prison or other "adult" institution employed approximately 95 staff members. For every member of the diagnostic and treatment staff there were 44 members of the custody staff.

Table 3 gives the number of personnel employed in correctional institution systems by type of personnel and type of system.

Extent of Manpower Shortages in Correctional Institution Systems. The extent of the manpower shortage in correctional institution systems depends mainly on the criteria used to determine how many such personnel are needed. The analysis that follows provides two rates of shortage: (1) official shortage rates based on the number of official vacancies in relation to the number employed; (2) executive assessment shortage rates based on the number of personnel needed in relation to the number employed.

TABLE 3.—*Estimated Size of Staff Employed in Correctional Institution Systems in the United States by Work Role and Type of System, End of 1965* [a]

	Type of system					
	Institutions for juveniles [b]		Institutions for "adults" [c]		Total [d]	
Work role	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Administrative staff	3,441	14.1	4,476	9.4	7,917	11.0
Custody staff	6,734	27.7	40,697	85.9	47,431	66.1
Cottage parents	8,044	33.1	—	—	8,044	11.2
Classification and general counseling staff	3,256	13.4	1,296	2.7	4,552	6.3
Diagnostic and treatment staff	2,849	11.7	918	1.9	3,767	5.3
Total	24,324	100.0	47,387	99.9	71,711	99.9

[a] Based on data from 267 correctional institution systems.
[b] Represents 370 systems with 740 institutional facilities designed exclusively for juveniles.
[c] Represents 62 systems with 502 institutional facilities designed primarily for adults.
[d] Represents all 432 correctional institutional systems in the United States (excluding local jails) and 1,242 institutional facilities.

---

[13] Excludes local jails and workhouses. See app. A for study findings on 67 of these institutions.

OFFICIAL VACANCIES. The official rate of manpower shortage is determined by the number of unfilled, budgeted positions in relation to the number of persons actually employed at the time in these positions. An official vacancy rate may be regarded as *the scope of the manpower shortage for correctional institutions by the standard of official public policy.*

All Correctional Institution Systems. At the beginning of 1966, there were about 5,400 full-time positions that were budgeted but unfilled in correctional institutions. These are official vacancies, constituting 7.5 percent of the total work force employed at the time. The highest rate of official shortage was that for diagnostic and treatment staff, with about one vacancy to every six positions that were filled (see table 4).

Systems With Institutions for Juveniles. Approximately 2,900 budgeted positions were unfilled in systems designed for juveniles. This constitutes an official vacancy rate of 12.1 percent. The highest rate of official shortage was among diagnostic and treatment staff.

Systems With Institutions for "Adults." At the beginning of 1966, a total of about 2,500 budgeted positions were unfilled in "adult" systems. This constitutes an official vacancy rate of 5.2 percent, which is considerably lower than for juvenile institutions. The highest rate of official shortage was among classification and general counseling personnel.

Manpower Needed for "Most Effective Operation" of Correctional Institutions. A second measure of shortage is based on the judgments of top correctional executives concerning the number of staff members needed for the most effective operation of their institutions. The shortage rate by executive assessment is determined by the number of additional staff members needed for particular work roles beyond the number actually employed in these positions. This rate of shortage may be regarded as *the scope of the manpower shortage for correctional institutions by the standard of executive assessment.*

Table 4 summarizes the scope of manpower shortage for each work role and type of correctional institution system. Each shortage rate is determined by the percentage increase needed in the work force beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965. As table 4 shows, there is a serious manpower shortage in correctional institutions. For some work roles, notably diagnostic and treatment positions, the shortage can be characterized as critical.

TABLE 4.—*Estimated Number and Rates of Manpower Shortage for Staff in Correctional Institution Systems in the United States, 1966–67*

	Standard of official public policy—additional staff needed beginning 1966		Standard of executive assessment			
			Additional staff needed beginning 1966		Additional staff needed beginning 1967	
Type of system and work role	Number	Rate (percent)	Number	Rate (percent)	Number	Rate (percent)
Juvenile systems:						
Administrative	555	16.1	[1] 555	[1] 16.1	[1] 555	[1] 16.1
Custody	777	11.5	3,071	45.6	4,033	59.9
Cottage parents	794	9.9	1,217	15.1	2,012	25.0
Classification and general counseling	259	8.0	259	8.0	629	19.3
Diagnostic and treatment	555	19.5	1,073	37.7	1,517	53.2
Total	2,940	12.1	6,175	25.4	8,746	36.0
"Adult" systems:						
Administrative	496	11.1	[1] 496	[1] 11.1	[1] 496	[1] 11.1
Custody	1,637	4.0	3,329	8.2	4,780	11.7
Classification and general counseling	248	19.1	663	51.2	1,134	87.6
Diagnostic and treatment	93	10.2	830	90.6	973	106.2
Total	2,474	5.2	5,318	11.2	7,383	15.6
All systems:						
Administrative	1,051	13.3	[1] 1,051	[1] 13.3	[1] 1,051	[1] 13.3
Custody	2,414	5.1	6,400	13.5	8,813	18.6
Cottage parents	794	9.9	1,217	15.1	2,012	25.0
Classification and general counseling	507	11.1	922	20.3	1,763	38.7
Diagnostic and treatment	648	17.2	1,903	50.5	2,490	66.1
Total	5,414	7.5	11,493	16.0	16,129	22.5

[1] These are conservative estimates based on the official vacancy rate at the beginning of 1966. Correctional executives were not asked to assess their need for additional administrative staff.

All Correctional Institution Systems. According to top executives of correctional institution systems, about 11,500 more staff members were needed at the beginning of 1966 for their institutions to function most effectively. A further increase of approximately 4,650 staff was considered necessary for the following year. These executives thus foresee a need for a total staff of approximately 88,000 by the beginning of 1967. This amount represents an additional 16,000 correctional institution personnel, or 22.5 percent more than the number employed a year earlier. *By the standard of executive assessment,* then, a far greater manpower shortage exists in correctional institutions than is prescribed by official public policy. The highest rate of shortage is that for diagnostic and treatment staff; two adddional psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers are needed for every three employed.

Systems With Institutions for Juveniles. By executive judgment, approximately 6,200 additional staff were needed by juvenile systems at the beginning of 1966. Approximately 2,575 more were considered necessary for the following year. The executives consequently foresee a need for a total staff of about 33,000 by the beginning of 1967. This would mean an additional 8,750 personnel, or 36.0 percent more than the number employed a year earlier. The highest rates of shortage in juvenile systems were for custody staff and treatment staff.

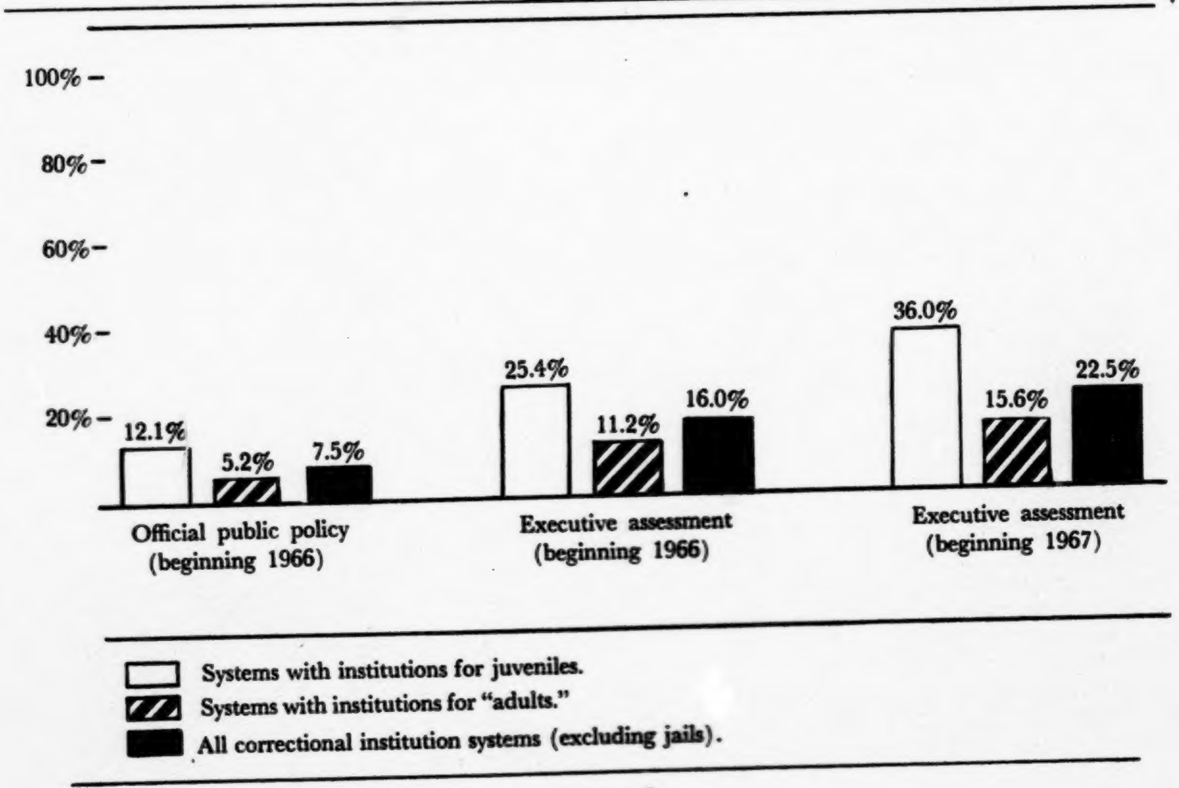
Systems With Institutions for "Adults." Top executives estimated that at the beginning of 1966 an additional 5,300 staff members were needed in institutions for "adults," and a further increase of about 2,000 persons was needed for the following year. A total of approximately 55,000 staff is thus considered necessary for the beginning of 1967. This amount represents an increase of about 7,400 personnel, or 15.6 percent more than the number employed a year earlier. The highest rate of shortage is for diagnostic and treatment staff.

Table 5 provides a composite of the total work force needed in juvenile and adult institutions.

Chart I is a composite of the manpower shortage rates for staff of correctional institution systems. Each shortage rate is determined by the percentage increase needed in the work force beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

It is clear that the overall rate of manpower shortage in juvenile systems is far higher than in systems with institutions for adults. However,as shown previously in table 4, the shortage of treatment personnel is greatest in systems for adults.

CHART I.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Staff in Correctional Institution Systems in the United States, 1966–67*



Chapters 2 through 4 will apply the manpower schema to a detailed analysis of manpower needs and policy for the following correctional institution staff: (1) custody; (2) diagnostic and treatment; and (3) classification and general counseling.

TABLE 5.—*Estimated Size of Staff Employed and Needed in Correctional Institution Systems in the United States, 1966–67* [a]

Type of system	Employed end 1965	Standard of official public policy—needed beginning 1966	Standard of executive assessment	
			Needed beginning 1966	Needed beginning 1967
Institutions for juveniles [b]	24,324	27,264	30,499	33,070
Institutions for "adults" [c]	47,387	49,861	52,705	54,770
Total [b]	71,711	77,125	83,204	87,840

[a] Data are based on responses from 267 correctional institution systems.

[b] Includes the following personnel: (1) administrative; (2) custody; (3) cottage parents; (4) classification and general counseling; and (5) diagnostic and treatment.

[c] Includes the following personnel: (1) administrative; (2) custody; (3) classification and general counseling; and (4) diagnostic and treatment.

CHAPTER 2

Application of the Manpower Schema to Custody Staff

Custody staff constitute by far the largest group of personnel employed in correctional institutions. The single exception to this generalization is in juvenile systems, where the number of custody staff is slightly less than the number of cottage parents.[1]

This chapter will apply the manpower schema to custody staff of correctional institutions. The first section will report the number who are employed and needed in each type of system. The next section will identify the educational standards recommended to qualify personnel for custody positions and the availability of personnel who meet these standards. The final section will analyze the feasibility of expanding the pool of personnel who are qualified for employment as custody staff.

Extent of Manpower Shortages for Custody Personnel

Number Employed. At the end of 1965, approximately 47,400 full-time custody personnel were employed in all correctional institution systems (other than local jails) in the United States.[2] The great majority of these personnel were located in institutions designed for adult offenders.

Correctional institution systems designed for juveniles employed an average of about 18 custody personnel,[3] which means that the typical training school or other institution for delinquents had nine full-time custody staff members. The total number of custody personnel employed by all juvenile systems in the country was approximately 6,700.

Correctional institution systems with facilities designed for adults employed an average of about 650 custody personnel; the typical prison or reformatory thus had 81 full-time correctional officers on its staff. The total number of custody staff employed by all "adult" systems in the country was approximately 40,700.

Official Vacancies. The official vacancy rate for custody personnel in all correctional institution systems was 5.1 percent of the total number employed. The number of custody positions that were budgeted but unfilled at the beginning of 1966 was approximately 2,400.

The vacancy rate for juvenile systems was almost three times as great as that for "adult" systems (11.5 percent as compared with 4 percent).

Number of Custody Personnel for the "Most Effective Operation" of Correctional Institutions. In the judgment of top executives of correctional institution systems, approximately 53,800—or 6,400 additional custody staff—were needed for the most effective operation of their institutions at the beginning of 1966.[4] In terms of this executive standard, the shortage was 13.5 percent of the

---

[1] See table 3.

[2] The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice reports 63,184 "custodial personnel and group supervisors" in 1965 (i.e., prison guards or correctional officers in adult institutions and cottage parents or group supervisors in juvenile institutions) in juvenile, felony, and misdemeanor institutions.

The figures reported by this Commission are somewhat lower than project findings when adjustments are made to exclude cottage parents and misdemeanor institutions, which are considered separately in this study. (See app. A for a discussion of local jails and workhouses.) See the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), pp. 95 and 96.

[3] This does not include cottage parents or administrative staff, who are considered separately in this study.

[4] The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice reports that 9,500 more custodial personnel are required. This is based on an average ratio of one custodial staff person for every six inmates.

As indicated previously, the Commission's figures include cottage parents and misdemeanor institutions, which are considered separately in this volume. See *Task Force Report: Corrections*, *op. cit.*, p. 96.

TABLE 6.—*Estimated Number of Custody Personnel Employed and Needed in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67* [a]

Type of system	Employed end of 1965	Standard of official public policy—needed beginning 1966	Standard of executive assessment	
			Needed beginning 1966	Needed beginning 1967
Institutions for juveniles [b]	6,734	7,511	9,805	10,767
Institutions for "adults" [c]	40,697	42,334	44,026	45,477
Total	47,431	49,845	53,831	56,244

[a] Full-time custody staff for all 432 correctional institution systems in the United States (excluding local jails and workhouses). Based on data from 267 systems.

[b] Represents 370 systems with 740 institutional facilities designed exclusively for juveniles.

[c] Represents 62 systems with 502 institutional facilities designed primarily for adults.

total custody work force, or more than one vacancy to every eight correctional officers employed.

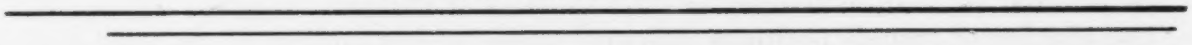
The greatest need for additional custody staff is in juvenile institutions. Their shortage rate at the beginning of 1966 was 45.6 percent of the existing custody staff, or almost one correctional officer to every two now employed. The corresponding shortage rate in adult systems is 8.2 percent by the standard of executive judgment.

Correctional executives anticipated that relatively few additional correctional officers would be needed for the following year (1967) *if their needs for these personnel were met in 1966*. They estimated that about 56,200 custody staff would be needed by the beginning of 1967, that is, an additional 2,400 officers, or 4.5 percent more than the number needed for effective institutional operation the previous year. The total increase is approximately 8,800 custody staff, or 18.6 percent more than the number actually employed a year earlier. Based on executive assessments for 1967, the shortage rate for custody staff in juvenile systems was far higher (59.9 percent) than in "adult" systems (11.7 percent).

The scope of the manpower shortage for custody staff of correctional institutions is tabulated in table 6.

Chart II shows the rates of manpower shortage for custody staff in the various correctional institution systems. Percentages are based on the number of custody staff needed as compared with the number employed at the end of 1965.

CHART II.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Custody Personnel in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67*



As can be seen in chart II, the shortage rates for custody staff are far higher in juvenile systems than in "adult" systems. One interpretation of these findings is that institutions designed to care for delinquents are becoming increasingly concerned with problems of custody.

Availability of Qualified Personnel for Custody Positions in Correctional Institutions

Who are the potential recruits who qualify for work as custody staff? The American Correctional Association maintains that there is a "need for special professional education and training of a high standard" for all personnel employed in correctional institutions, although it does not specify its criteria.[5]

This section will attempt to identify the educational programs that qualify personnel as custody staff and will consider the size of the manpower pool currently available for these positions.

Recommended Educational Standards for Custody Personnel. The number of qualified persons available for recruitment to correctional institutions obviously depends on the standards used to determine who is qualified. Throughout this analysis, our primary source of reference for qualifying standards will be that of executive judgment. Additional sources, and standards of qualification from project surveys and the literature, will also be covered.

There are two reasons for selecting corrections executives as the primary source of standards: (1) they are most likely to be knowledgeable about the particular problems and needs of their institutions; (2) they are in a key position to control the hiring and firing of institutional personnel. It is important to emphasize the strategic importance of corrections administrators in an analysis of manpower shortage if it is to be of relevance for policy. It seems unlikely that new manpower policies and programs can succeed unless the pool of personnel considered qualified by the corrections executives who must recruit them and evaluate their work performance is expanded.

The correctional institution executives whose educational recommendations are reported in this study represent 93 major correctional institution systems in the United States and over 400 institutional facilities. About three-fifths of these systems (N=57) are State correctional institution systems; about one-fourth (N=22) are private institution systems for juveniles; and the remainder (N=14) are county or municipal training school systems.[6]

About half the correctional executives of this survey explicitly endorse a formal university degree program to qualify personnel as custody staff. The overwhelming choice of these executives is for a degree program in corrections.

About half the executives did not respond to the questionnaire items regarding appropriate academic training for custody staff. It is not clear how many merely skipped the particular items and how many did not answer as a means of signifying that they did not endorse college training for custody personnel even "if educational opportunities were made available."[7]

As shown in table 7, corrections ranked highest among the 11 university areas from which executives were asked to select an appropriate education for custody personnel.[8] None of the following degree programs was advocated by more than a very few executives: criminology, law (criminal), law (general), police science,

TABLE 7.—*Education Recommended by Correctional Institution Executives to Qualify Personnel for Custody Staff*

Work role	University area recommended [a]	Percent and number of executives [b]	
		Percent	Number
Custody personnel in juvenile institutions.	Corrections	61.5	(24)
Custody personnel in prisons and reformatories.	Corrections	76.1	(35)

[a] More executives advocate this university area for a degree than any other from among 11 choices.
[b] Percentages do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

---

[5] *Proceedings of the Ninetieth Annual Congress of Correction of the American Correctional Association* (New York: 1960), Principle XII, p. 486.

[6] See app. B for further description of major correctional institution systems.

[7] See app. H for a copy of the questionnaire.

[8] For the educational standards recommended by other professional and academic groups, see the final section of this chapter "Feasibility of Expanding the Pool of Corrections Graduates for Custody Positions in Correctional Institution Systems."

TABLE 8.—*Educational Qualifications Required for Custody Staff of Correctional Institutions* [a]

Type of institution	Qualifications required for custody staff		
	None (Percent)	High school (Percent)	College graduate (Percent)
Juvenile detention	25.0	61.0	14.0
Juvenile institutions	49.0	51.0	—
Adult institutions	41.1	58.9	—

[a] Data are drawn from the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *Crime and Delinquency*, January 1967, table 15, p. 242.

psychiatry, psychology (general), psychology (clinical), public administration, social work, and sociology (general).

Qualifications of Existing Custody Staff. A recent survey taken for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice found that only a few correctional institutions set an educational standard that required college training for their custody staff (see table 8).

Table 9 reports this project's findings on the typical educational background of custody personnel. As can be seen in the table, virtually all correctional institution systems recruited custody staff from individuals with a high school education. No system was able to recruit a sizable number with academic training in corrections.

The central facts that emerge from study data and other sources reveal a wide disparity between the educational qualifications of custody staff and the standards held by a substantial proportion of correctional executives. Very few correctional institution systems maintain an educational standard that requires academic training in corrections—or any other university area. At the same time, there is increasing pressure for the correctional officer to assume rehabilitation and clinical responsibilities in his interaction with inmates.

> Under professional leadership and consultation, programs of group counseling conducted by lay personnel of the institution should be part of the clinical services of the institution.[9]

Availability of Corrections Graduates for Custody Positions. To what extent are corrections graduates becoming available for recruitment to custody positions? This section will describe study findings on the number of graduates from academic programs in corrections over the past 2 years.

JUNIOR COLLEGE PROGRAMS. Only 3 percent of the junior colleges in the United States offer a concentration in corrections or correctional administration.[10] Project surveys indicate that in the academic years 1965 to 1967, about 14 of the 509 junior colleges in the country offered a course concentration that met the following criteria:

> Twelve or more credit hours in a defined program of study in the practice and administration of programs for the prevention, control, and treatment of offenders.

TABLE 9.—*Typical Education of Custody Staff in Correctional Institution Systems* [a]

Typical education of custody staff	Correctional institution systems	
	Percent	Number
High school	82	(37)
Some college	9	(4)
Bachelor's degree—sociology/psychology	2	(1)
Bachelor's degree—corrections/social work	0	(0)
Other bachelor's degree	0	(0)
Other college degree	0	(0)
No answer/all other	7	(3)
Total	100	(45)

[a] Data are based on descriptions by the correctional institution systems regarding the most typical education of their custody personnel engaged in inservice training during 1965.

---

[9] National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *op. cit.*, p. 192.

[10] For a directory of university programs in corrections or correctional administration, see Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education and Training for Criminal Justice: A Directory of Programs in Universities and Agencies (1965–1967)* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968), J.D. Publication No. 78.

Chart III.—*Estimated Manpower Needed as Custody Staff During 1966–67 and the Availability of Corrections Graduates for Recruitment*

Custody personnel	Additional manpower needed [a]	Corrections graduates available [b]
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	2,425	80
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	6,400	80
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	8,825	90

[a] The number needed in addition to those employed in 432 correctional institution systems at the end of 1965. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 6 above.

[b] The total number of corrections graduates for the year who can be expected to be recruited as custody staff in correctional institutions.

Less than 15 associate degrees were granted through these programs in 1965–66. Apparently, many of the junior college programs in corrections had only recently been organized. Most schools reported that they expected to expand their corrections courses and the number of graduates the following academic year, 1966–67.

SENIOR COLLEGES. Project data indicate that 47 senior colleges in the United States offer a degree program in corrections or correctional administration. The typical degree is at the bachelor's level although some programs offer graduate degrees. Responses to project questionnaires from 403 senior colleges (other than professional schools) reveal that about one out of 25 senior colleges offered corrections programs in the academic year 1965–66.[11]

The total number of graduates from degree programs in corrections during the academic year 1965–66 was approximately 730 (mean = 15.5). This number increased to about 800 graduates for the academic year 1966–67. Correctional institution systems could expect to recruit about one-third of these graduates each year.[12] Therefore, the number of corrections graduates likely to be recruited to all positions in all correctional institutions in the country is approximately 250 to 275. *A liberal estimate is that perhaps one-third or 80 of these corrections graduates take custody positions rather than other positions such as supervisory or administrative staff, or classification and general counseling staff.*

This pool of corrections graduates is sufficient to fill about one-thirtieth (3 percent) of the official vacancies for custody staff at the beginning of 1966 (excluding local jails). This amount is far less than the number of personnel needed at the beginning of 1966 by a single State system to fill existing vacancies for custody staff in its prisons and reformatories.

Chart III summarizes porject findings on the number of corrections graduates available in relation to the need for custody staff during 1966 and 1967.

It is apparent that the number of corrections graduates available for recruitment as custody staff is far less than the manpower needed for these positions. In the following section we shall therefore consider the feasibility of expanding corrections programs and their pool of graduates.

Feasibility of Expanding the Pool of Corrections Graduates for Custody Positions in Correctional Institutions

The feasibility of expanding academic programs in corrections depends first on conditions within the departments that offer such programs. Do the departmental chairmen concur with institutional executives that the corrections program is the most appropriate educational standard for custody personnel? Are they prepared to expand their corrections programs? Do the educational resources exist and can they be mobilized for major expansion?

The feasibility of corrections expansion also depends on outside support from the academic and professional community. Is the academic program in cor-

---

[11] The corrections or correctional administration program is "practice-oriented" and was thus differentiated in the survey from the more academically oriented program of criminology or social deviance.

These latter programs were defined as follows: Twelve or more credit hours in a defined program of study in the causes and responses to crime and delinquency as social or psychological phenomena. Project data indicate that 107 senior colleges in the country, or about one out of 11, offered this kind of criminology program during the academic year 1965–66.

[12] As for the other two-thirds, one-third take positions in probation/parole agencies and the remainder go into full-time graduate study, law enforcement, or other positions. Data are based on the schools' responses about the types of positions usually filled by their students upon graduation.

TABLE 10.—*Education Recommended to Qualify Personnel for Custody Staff by Chairmen of Departments that Offer a Concentration in Corrections* [a]

University area recommended [b]	Percent of chairmen
Corrections	64.7
Criminology	17.6
Sociology (general)	11.8
Social work	5.9
Other	0.0
Total	100.0
(Number)	(17)

[a] A concentration was defined as 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study.
[b] The university area "strongly advocated" for a degree from among 11 choices.

rections generally endorsed as the appropriate educational standard for custody personnel? Do academic and professional groups legitimate specialized undergraduate programs in corrections? It is unlikely that programs in corrections will be expanded unless there is reasonable consensus on these issues.

Conditions Within Departments With Corrections Programs

CONCURRENCE OF ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS AND CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTION SYSTEMS ON EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS. A degree program in corrections is the educational standard most frequently advocated by correctional executives for custody personnel. As table 10 shows, almost two-thirds of the chairmen of departments that offer corrections programs subscribe to this standard for custody personnel.

LEGITIMACY OF SPECIALIZED UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS IN CORRECTIONS. Virtually all (16 out of 17) chairmen of departments that offer a concentration in corrections approve of these programs for a degree on the undergraduate level. Only one chairman believed that corrections programs of this kind should be offered without academic credit. These academic executives apparently believe that the university has an obligation to offer undergraduate specializations that are practice-oriented for the field of corrections.

READINESS OF DEPARTMENTS WITH A CONCENTRATION IN CORRECTIONS TO EXPAND STUDENT TRAINING FOR WORK WITH OFFENDERS. The findings just described indicate that departments that have concentrations in corrections are ideologically committed to training students for the field of corrections. Are these departments prepared to translate this commitment into expanded programs? As table 11 shows, all departments with a concentration in corrections report that they are ready for expansion *if additional funds are made available.* Eighteen departments (or 90 percent) are prepared to employ additional faculty for training students to work with offenders. An equal number are prepared to use additional scholarship funds for training students to work with offenders. Four-fifths of the departments are prepared to expand their physical facilities; and three-fifths are ready to assume responsibility for a Crime and Delinquency Training Center. None of the departments reports that it is not interested in federal funds for additional training of students to work with offenders.[13]

In summary, all departments with a concentration in corrections are apparently willing and ready to expand their programs and their number of graduates for work with offenders if additional training resources are made available to them.

TABLE 11.—*Readiness of Academic Departments With a Concentration in Corrections to Expand Student Training for Work With Offenders if Federal Funds Are Made Available*

Training resources earmarked for work with offenders	Percent of departments: Prepared to use funds	Percent of departments: Not prepared to use funds
Salaries for additional faculty	90	10
Scholarships to students	90	10
Expanded physical facilities	80	20
Crime and Delinquency Training Center responsible to department	60	40
Total departments	100	0
Number	(20)	(0)

---

[13] By way of comparison, 28.2 percent of the departments of clinical psychology (Ph. D.), 19.2 percent of the psychiatric residency centers, 2.5 percent of the law schools, and 2.1 percent of the social work schools report that they are not interested in Federal funds for this purpose.

TRAINING RESOURCES NEEDED TO EXPAND CORRECTIONS PROGRAMS IN DEPARTMENTS WITH A CONCENTRATION IN CORRECTIONS. Can these departments mobilize vital training resources for expanded correctional programs if funds are provided? This depends of course on the extent of the expansion.

Only one-third of the departments (36.8 percent) report that for the academic year 1965–66 their corrections programs were not hindered by lack of funds. Three-fourths of the departments report that their programs were hindered by faculty overload and limited space. In most instances, each of these difficulties could be solved directly by additional funds.

Three other problems are apparently of lesser importance. In about one-third of the departments there was a short supply of good faculty for corrections courses; in another one-third there was an insufficient number of good students; and in one-fourth there was a lack of suitable agencies for field placements.

These findings suggest that in most instances the training resources needed can be provided through a larger budget for corrections programs.[14]

Findings on training resources needed are summarized in table 12.

Conditions Within the University and Professional Complex. The extent to which academic departments are able to expand their corrections programs depends in part on the support or opposition of a number of strategic groups within the university and professional complex. There is not likely to be major expansion of academic programs in corrections even if financial subsidies are made available by foundations or the government unless these programs are acceptable to key groups in the university and professional communities.

TRAINING IN CORRECTIONS FOR CUSTODY STAFF—CONSENSUS AND DIVERGENCE ON STANDARDS. Do key academic and professional groups also endorse degree programs in corrections as the most appropriate educational standard for custody personnel? Almost all academic and professional groups that were surveyed by the project "strongly advocate" corrections as the qualifying degree for custody personnel of prisons and reformatories.

As table 13 shows, corrections ranks highest as the university area recommended for a degree among most top executives of each academic and agency group except social work deans.[15]

There is thus an overall consensus on corrections as the qualifying academic area for training of custody personnel. This standard is generally held by executives who hire custody staff, chairmen of academic departments that offer corrections programs, and key groups in the academic and professional community.

The establishment of educational standards for personnel of correctional institutions is advocated by a number of influential organizations. However, they do not generally specify a degree area in their discussions of custody staff. Their primary concern is generally to raise the level of educational requirements for this personnel group.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of

TABLE 12.—*Training Resources Needed by Departments With a Concentration in Corrections For Programs in Corrections* [a]

Needed resource	Percent of departments [b]
Lower faculty workload	75.0
Space	73.7
Funds	63.2
Good faculty	35.0
Good students	33.3
Suitable agencies for field placements	25.0
Total departments lacking at least one training resource	85.0

[a] Based on responses of 20 departments concerning the factors that hindered them in planning or organizing fieldwork or classroom courses in the crime and delinquency fields for the academic year 1965–66.

[b] Percentage excludes nonrespondents to the particular item.

---

[14] A major difference between these departments and graduate schools of psychology and social work is the need of suitable agencies for field placement of students. A majority of psychology and social work schools as compared with only a fourth of the academic departments offering a concentration in corrections report this as a problem. This is probably owing to the greater incidence and importance of field training in the professional school programs. See ch. 3 of this volume, "Training Resources Needed by Professional Schools for Expanded Programs in Work with Offenders."

[15] See app. B to G for a description of academic institutions and Criminal Justice agencies in the sample and population.

TABLE 13.—*Education Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel as Custody Staff in Prisons and Reformatories*

Source of standard	Number surveyed	University area recommended [a]
Academic executives:		
College presidents and department chairmen [b]	491	Corrections
Deans—social work	50	Social work [c]
Directors—clinical psychology	44	Corrections
Directors—psychiatric residency	184	Corrections
Deans—law	83	Corrections
Directors—Crime and Delinquency Centers	26	Corrections
Criminal Justice executives (other than executives of correctional institution systems):		
Probation/parole systems	146	Corrections
Law enforcement systems	108	Corrections

[a] More executives advocated this university area for a degree than any other from among 11 choices.
[b] Excludes 20 departments with a concentration in corrections; see table 10.
[c] Corrections ranked second in the selection of social work deans.

Justice proposes that institutions immediately establish the completion of high school as a minimum requirement for custodial personnel.[16]

Their report also advocates that college training should be a desirable standard for this personnel group in the future.

> With in-service training and supplementary education, many custodial personnel subsequently can assume managerial and specialist positions. With the establishment of such career patterns, recruitment should be extended to the graduates of junior colleges and 4-year colleges.[17]

The Arden House Conference of June 24–26, 1964, set no specific level or university area of training as qualifying personnel for custody staff.[18] However, a prominent participant of the conference, Daniel Glaser, advocated a B.A. or B.S. degree for the correctional officer.[19]

The New York State Department of Correction, in a publication describing career opportunities in correctional work, states that preference in appointment of correctional officers will be given to those who have graduated from a 2-year technical institute or community or junior college or those who have completed 2 years at a recognized college or university.[20]

The California Probation, Parole, and Correctional Association suggests that the minimum educational standard for institutional correctional officers should be 2 years of college in a liberal arts program. However, their preferred standard is the attainment of a bachelor's degree in liberal arts.[21]

In summary, academic training in corrections for custody personnel is the educational standard generally advocated by executives of correctional systems and widely proposed by key groups in the university and professional communities. A number of influential organizations tend to be more concerned that recruitment qualifications be raised to the college level than with training in a specific degree area.

LEGITIMACY OF SPECIALIZED UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS IN CORRECTIONS. Do universities and professional schools legitimate the undergraduate program that offers a concentration in corrections? As shown in table 14, about three-fifths of all academic executives surveyed (N=386) approve of these programs for degree credit. Two-fifths (N=250) either disapprove of these programs at the university or believe they should be offered only as special noncredit programs.

The highest rate of approval is found among college presidents and department chairmen: almost three-fourths of this group, which is probably most strategic with respect to program expansion, approve of the undergraduate degree

---

[16] *Task Force Report: Corrections, op. cit.*, p. 96.

[17] *Ibid.*

[18] See "Decisions of the Conference," in Charles S. Prigmore (ed.), *Manpower and Training for Corrections* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1966), pp. xi–xxv.

[19] "The Prospect for Corrections," in Prigmore, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

[20] See New York State Department of Correction, *Career Opportunities in Correctional Work* (New York: 1966), 2d ed., p. 10.

[21] California Probation, Parole, and Correctional Association, *The Practitioner in Corrections* (Arcadia, Calif.: 1967), p. 13.

Table 14.—*Extent to Which Universities and Professional Schools Legitimate Undergraduate Programs With a Concentration in Corrections* [a]

	Corrections as degree program			
	Approve		Do not approve [b]	
Academic executives	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
College presidents and department chairmen [c]	71.0	(239)	29.0	(104)
Deans—social work	59.0	(23)	41.0	(16)
Directors—clinical psychology	36.1	(13)	63.9	(23)
Directors—psychiatric residency	43.1	(62)	56.9	(82)
Deans—law	66.2	(49)	33.8	(25)
Total academic respondents	60.7	(386)	39.3	(250)

[a] 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study.

[b] Figures include respondents who disapprove of these programs at the university and respondents who approve of them only as special noncredit programs.

[c] Excludes 20 departments with a concentration in corrections.

program with a concentration in corrections. About two-thirds of the law school deans and three-fifths of the social work deans also approve of such a program.

However, the majority of directors of clinical psychology departments and psychiatric residency centers do not legitimate the undergraduate degree program with a concentration in corrections.

Of six proposed specialization programs in Criminal Justice, the undergraduate degree program with a concentration in corrections ranked fifth in rate of legitimation. Specializations at the graduate level, especially those in professional schools, received a considerably higher rate of academic approval.

The undergraduate program in corrections received a far lower rate of academic legitimation than did graduate social work programs with a concentration in corrections (approved by 519, or 86.6 percent, of the academic executives).[22] At the other extreme, undergraduate programs in corrections received a somewhat higher rate of academic legitimation than did undergraduate programs in police science (the latter were approved by 321, or 52.5 percent, of the academic executives).[23]

These findings indicate that a national policy to expand undergraduate programs in corrections is likely to receive only limited support from the professional and academic communities.

Active Support of Undergraduate Programs With a Concentration in Corrections. Two sets of findings further indicate the extent of active support for programs with a concentration in corrections.

As one can see in table 15, almost half the correctional institution systems (47 percent) are willing to provide fieldwork facilities for training of students from departments of sociology. Relatively few (13 percent) are willing to accept students from an academic department of corrections.

The findings in table 15 suggest that the undergraduate corrections program located in a sociology department could expect cooperation from many correctional institutions for fieldwork training of students. However, a similar program located in an academic department of corrections is far less likely to elicit the institutional support that is necessary for a fieldwork program.

The actual experience of departments with a concentration in corrections reflects a good deal of active support for their programs. As table 16 shows, during the academic year 1965–66, departments with corrections concentrations were usually aided in their training programs by each of five key academic and professional groups.

Active support is apparently available to most departments for expanding their correctional training programs. However, based on their actual experience,

Table 15.—*University Departments for Which Correctional Institution Systems Are Willing to Provide Fieldwork Training Facilities* [a]

	Percent [b]	Number
Sociology	46.5	(33)
Corrections	12.7	(9)

[a] Data are based on responses of 71 major correctional institution systems to an open-ended question that asked them to identify the university departments, if any, from which they were willing to accept students and provide facilities for fieldwork training.

[b] Social work ranked first with 77.5 percent (N=55). Psychology ranked second with 59.2 percent (N=42).

---

[22] These figures exclude responses of the social work deans.

[23] These figures exclude responses of the chairmen of academic departments with programs in police science.

TABLE 16.—*Extent of Support for Undergraduate Programs in Corrections* [a]

	Percent of departments with a Corrections concentration [b]	
	Support	Opposition
Academic groups:		
Faculty senate or university committees	78.6	21.4
Personnel within own department	77.8	22.2
Personnel from other departments of the university	75.0	25.0
Personnel in university administration	68.4	31.6
Professional groups:		
Personnel in correctional and law enforcement organizations in the community	78.9	21.1
Other important persons or organizations	90.9	9.1

[a] Based on responses of 20 departments with a concentration in corrections concerning the groups whose actions and attitudes helped or hindered them in planning or organizing educational programs in the Crime and Delinquency fields for the academic year 1965–66.

[b] Percentage excludes nonrespondents to the particular item.

about one-third of the departments (31.6 percent) are likely to experience opposition to their corrections programs from university administration.[24]

The cost of expansion will be considered below.

Strategies and Costs Required to Expand the Pool of Corrections Graduates for Custody Staff

Academic Costs for Corrections Graduates. The average cost of producing a graduate from a 2-year academic program in corrections is estimated at $5,325.[25] This figure is based on the 1965–66 national average of approximately $2,500 per undergraduate student per year, exclusive of scholarships.[26] The average scholarship cost per corrections student per year is approximately $165.[27]

Assuming that the current rate of recruitment remains stable, then about one corrections graduate in nine (11.1 percent) can be expected to take a custody position. Therefore, in order to recruit the minimal custody staff needed to fill *official vacancies,* it would be necessary to train about 22,000 additional corrections graduates. The cost of producing this added pool of graduates is *approximately $116 million.*

At the current rate of recruitment, it would be necessary to train over 79,000 additional corrections graduates in order to produce the 8,825 custody staff required for correctional institutions to function "most effectively." An expansion of this magnitude would cost approximately $423 million. It would make available about 70,000 corrections graduates for positions in the corrections field other than as members of custody staff.

Chart IV shows the number and cost of additional corrections graduates required to fill manpower needs for custody staff. *These cost estimates assume that corrections graduates are recruited to custody staff at a stable rate of approximately 11.1 percent.*

It is also possible that correctional institutions may increase their efficiency in recruiting corrections graduates to custody positions. This might occur, for example, through special stipend inducements to those corrections students who commit themselves to take custody jobs upon graduation.

Higher salaries would probably prove more effective as an incentive for the corrections graduates to join a custody staff. If correctional institutions are to recruit corrections or other college graduates as custody staff, they must be able to pay salaries that justify this training. As shown in table 17, however, less than one-fourth of the systems paid as much as $5,000 a year to beginning custody staff. The

---

[24] This figure may be compared with the experience of graduate schools of social work, only 4.3 percent of which reported opposition to their correctional training programs from university administration. See ch. 3, table 30.

[25] The undergraduate corrections program in the junior college involves 2 years of study for the associate degree. The bachelor's degree program involves 2 years of study with corrections as a concentration or major.

[26] For the academic year 1965–66, the national average cost at a publicly supported institution was $2,105 per undergraduate student per year. At a private institution it was $3,102. Therefore, average cost per student per year is approximated at $2,500, excluding scholarship costs. See Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Projections of Educational Statistics to 1975–76* (Washington, D.C.: 1966), pp. 21 and 82–85.

[27] This figure is based on data reported to the project for the academic year 1965–66 by 20 departments offering a concentration in corrections.

Chart IV.—*Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Custody Staff in Correctional Institutions, Assuming Current Rate of Recruitment of Corrections Graduates* [a]

Custody personnel	Additional manpower needed [b]	Additional corrections graduates needed [c]	Training costs in million of dollars [d]
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	2,425	21,825	116.2
Executive assessment, beginning 1966 [e]	6,400	57,600	306.9
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	8,825	79,425	423.0

[a] The proportion of corrections graduates recruited to custody staff is roughly estimated at 11.1 percent.

[b] The number needed in addition to those employed in all 432 correctional institution systems in the United States (excluding local jails)at the end of 1965. Numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 6 above.

[c] For every 9 corrections graduates, 1 is recruited to custody staff.

[d] The cost of producing an additional graduate is approximately $5,325.

[e] The executive assessments are based on the manpower need reported by correctional institution executives beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

median annual salary in 1966 was $4,150. This is almost $1,100 a year less than the average beginning salary paid to law enforcement officers (median of $5,224).

The findings in table 17 show that custody staff are paid incredibly low salaries even if adjustments are made for institutional benefits such as meals and lodging. Only 5 percent of the correctional institution systems pay a beginning salary of $6,000. Unless public policy provides substantial increases in the salaries paid to custody personnel, it is highly unlikely that college graduates will be attracted to these positions.

If correctional institutions were to succeed in recruiting a larger proportion of corrections graduates to custody staff, the cost of meeting their manpower needs for this personnel group would drop accordingly. Chart V shows the cost of training additional corrections graduates sufficient to meet the need for custody staff on the basis of perfect recruitment success. *These cost estimates assume that every additional corrections graduate will be recruited to a custody staff position in correctional institutions other than local jails and workhouses.*[28]

Summary and Conclusions

Custody staff outnumber all other personnel combined in correctional institutions. They perform one of the most vital functions of these institutions—the physical control of inmates. It is not surprising, therefore, that the official rate of manpower shortage for custody staff is relatively modest (5.1 percent) in comparison with other personnel groups. However, if correctional institutions are to operate "most effectively" in the judgment of their top executives, the shortage of custody personnel is of a serious nature in "adult" systems (12 percent) and may be characterized as a crisis in juvenile systems (60 percent).

Given the importance of custody personnel to the correctional institution, their quality is a matter of central concern. The formal training advocated far

Table 17.—*Beginning Salaries of Custody Staff in Correctional Institutions Compared With Beginning Salaries of Law Enforcement Officers*

Annual salary	Custody staff, 1966 [a]		Law enforcement officers, 1966 [b]	
	Percent	Number of systems	Percent	Number of systems
Less than $3,000	12.8	(27)	2.2	(6)
$3,000 to $3,999	33.2	(70)	10.0	(28)
$4,000 to $4,999	28.4	(60)	30.1	(84)
$5,000 to $5,999	20.4	(43)	35.1	(98)
$6,000 to $6,999	3.8	(8)	14.7	(41)
$7,000 to $7,999	.9	(2)	6.1	(17)
$8,000 to $9,999	.5	(1)	1.8	(5)
$10,000 or more	0.0	(0)	0.0	(0)
Total systems	100.0	(211)	100.0	(279)

[a] Based on responses from 211 correctional institution systems in 1966 regarding the current beginning salaries for "custody staff."

[b] Based on responses from 279 law enforcement systems in 1966 regarding the current beginning salaries for "law enforcement officers."

---

[28] It would cost approximately $66.6 million to train the additional custody staff that the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice reports is needed in misdemeanor institutions. This cost estimate is based on Commission figures showing 14,993 custody staff employed in misdemeanor institutions in 1965 and 27,500 such personnel needed (i.e., 12,507 additional custody staff needed). See their *Task Force Report: Corrections, op. cit.*, table 4, p. 96.

Chart V.—*Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Custody Staff in Correctional Institutions, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Success* [a]

Custody personnel	Additional manpower needed [b]	Training costs for additional corrections grauates,[c] in millions of dollars
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	2,425	12.9
Executive assessment, beginning 1966 [d]	6,400	34.1
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	8,825	[e] 47.0

[a] That is, assuming every additional corrections graduate is recruited to custody staff in correctional institutions other than local jails and workhouses.

[b] The number needed in addition to the number employed. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 6 above.

[c] The cost of producing an additional graduate is estimated at $5,325 for a 2-year program.

[d] The executive assessments are based on the manpower need reported by correctional institution executives beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

[e] The cost of training 13,900 correctional graduates to meet the manpower need for "custodial personnel and group supervisors" in juvenile and felony institutions, as reported by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, is approximately $74 million. This cost estimate is based on Commission figures showing 48,191 such personnel employed in 1965 and 62,100 needed. See their *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), table 4, p. 96.

more frequently than any other for this personnel group is the university program in corrections. However, few correctional institutions require any college training as a standard for recruitment; the education of new custody staff is typically on the high school level.

Current corrections programs produce only about 80 to 90 graduates a year for employment as custody staff in correctional institutions. At this rate, it would take 30 years to train a sufficient number of corrections graduates to fill official vacancies existing for custody staff at the beginning of 1966; and it would take about 100 years to train the number of graduates required for the "most effective operation" of correctional institution systems in 1967.

Several factors suggest that a limited expansion of undergraduate degree programs in corrections is probably feasible. Conditions within the departments now offering a corrections program are highly favorable for expansion. The chairmen of these departments generally endorse their training programs as the suitable qualification for custody personnel. They are, without exception, ready to expand student training for work with offenders if additional funds are made available. Most needed to aid training are reductions in faculty workloads and more space.

Conditions within the university and professional complex indicate only limited support for expansion of undergraduate programs in corrections. Though almost all groups advocate the corrections program to qualify personnel for custody staff, two-fifths of the college presidents and professional school deans do not give academic legitimation to these programs. Among academic executives, 250 out of 614, or 39 percent, disapprove of the undergraduate corrections program or approve of it only as a special noncredit program.

Fieldwork or internship training is also apt to present a problem unless the undergraduate corrections program is located in a department of sociology. Moreover, the experience of departments with corrections programs indicates overall support from almost all academic and professional groups, but one-third of the departments report opposition from university administration.

This analysis of custody staff points to a severe disjunction between the need for qualified custory personnel and the ability to meet this need through existing institutional means. It suggests that in addition to expanding our academic programs in corrections it is also necessary to create resources for the training of custody personnel.

Chapter 5 will discuss a type of new resource designed to address these problems on a national scale.

CHAPTER 3

Application of the Manpower Schema to Diagnostic and Treatment Staff

Among the five groups of work roles that are examined in this study, diagnostic and treatment staff are the smallest group of personnel employed in correctional institutions (5.3 percent).[1] This is true for both juvenile and "adult" systems.[2] Because their number and proportion is so small in prisons, reformatories, and other institutions for adults, there are serious questions about the professional efficacy of clinical personnel in these institutions. Nonetheless, they represent "the core of the correctional treatment program." [3]

This chapter will apply the manpower schema to diagnostic and treatment staff of correctional institutions. The first section will report the number who are employed and needed in juvenile and "adult" systems. The second section will identify the educational standards that qualify personnel for these positions and the availability of such personnel. The two final sections will analyze the feasibility and costs of expanding the pool of personnel who are qualified for practice as diagnostic and treatment staff.

Extent of Manpower Shortages for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel

Number Employed. At the end of 1965, approximately 3,800 full-time diagnostic and treatment personnel were employed in all correctional institutions of the United States (other than local jails).[4] About three-fourths of these clinical personnel were employed in juvenile institutions.

A typical training school or other institution for juveniles employed about four (3.9) diagnostic and treatment staff, as compared with an average of over nine full-time custody staff.

A typical prison or other institution for adult offenders employed less than two (1.8) clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers, as compared with an average of 81 full-time custody staff.

Official Vacancies. About 650 full-time positions for diagnostic and treatment staff were budgeted but unfilled in correctional institutions at the beginning of 1966. Official vacancies constituted 17.2 percent of the total number of diagnostic and treatment personnel employed at the time.

The official vacancy rate in correctional institutions for juveniles was almost twice as high as that in institutions for "adults" (19.5 percent as compared with 10.2 percent). The official vacancy rate may be regarded as the scope of the manpower shortage for diagnostic and treatment staff, according to the standard of official public policy.

---

[1] The following clinical positions were identified as comprising "diagnostic and treatment staff" in order to assess manpower needs for this category: clinical psychologist, psychiatrist, social worker. A separate category of positions and personnel, "classification and general counseling staff," will be considered in the following chapter.

[2] See table 3 above.

[3] "Principle XXI. The task of evaluating the individual offender and developing the most appropriate treatment program must draw upon all the available knowledge and professional skill represented by sociology, psychology, psychiatry, social case work and related disciplines. Specialists and technicians from these fields must be welded into a diagnostic and treatment team by competent administrators, so that the disciplines they represent may become the core of the correctional treatment program." American Correctional Association, *op. cit.*, p. 487.

[4] Figures reported to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice show an even smaller number (2,587) of psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers employed in institutions other than local jails at the beginning of 1966. Of this total, 16.0 percent (N = 413) were reported to be psychologists, 6.8 percent (N = 176) were psychiatrists, and 77.2 percent (N = 1,998) were reported to be social workers.

Local jails were reported as employing a total of 258 such personnel. See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *op. cit.*, table 13, p. 240.

Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel Needed for the "Most Effective Operation" of Correctional Institutions. Top executives of correctional institution systems estimated that at the beginning of 1966 about 5,675 diagnostic and treatment staff—or an additional 1,900 such personnel—were needed for the most effective operation of their institutions. This means that 50.5 percent more clinical staff were required than the number actually employed.[5]

In terms of the executive standard, the shortage of diagnostic and treatment staff in 1966 was severe in juvenile institutions (37.7 percent). "Adult" institutions, however, were experiencing a manpower shortage of truly crisis proportions, with almost one vacancy for every clinical person employed (90.6 percent).

Correctional executives anticipated that for 1967 about 500 additional clinical staff would be needed beyond the number required the previous year. This represents a total diagnostic and treatment staff of 6,250, or an increase of 66.1 percent over the number actually employed a year earlier.

Juvenile systems had a shortage rate of 53.2 percent, or about one clinical person needed for every two employed. In "adult" systems, the shortage rate was 106.2 percent, or more than one clinical person needed for each one employed.

Table 18 summarizes the extent of the shortage for diagnostic and treatment personnel in correctional institutions.

Chart VI shows the rates of manpower shortage for diagnostic and treatment personnel by type of correctional institution system. Percentages are based on the number of clinical staff needed compared with the number employed at the end of 1965.

According to the standard of official public policy (official vacancies), the shortage of diagnostic and treatment staff in correctional institutions is substantial. The rate of official vacancies for this group is 17.2 percent, which is higher than that for any other category in correctional institutions,[6] and considerably higher than that for any group of probation/parole personnel except training officers.[7]

An alternative standard, based on the assessments of correctional executives (for the most effective operation of their institutions) reveals an extreme shortage

TABLE 18.—*Estimated Number of Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel Employed and Needed in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67* [a]

Type of system	Employed end of 1965	Standard of official public policy—needed beginning 1966	Standard of executive assessment	
			Needed beginning 1966	Needed beginning 1967
Institutions for juveniles [b]	2,849	3,404	3,922	4,366
Institutions for "adults" [c]	918	1,011	1,748	1,891
Total	3,767	4,415	5,670	6,257

[a] Full-time diagnostic and treatment staff i.e., clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers, for all 432 correctional institution systems in the United States, excluding local jails and workhouses. Based on data from 267 systems.

[b] Represents 370 systems with 740 institutional facilities designed exclusively for juveniles.

[c] Represents 62 systems with 502 institutional facilities designed primarily for adults.

---

[5] The President's Commission survey reported a need for 2,424 additional psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers in correctional institutions other than local jails. The breakdown is 915 additional psychologists (or 222 percent more than the number now employed); 481 additional psychiatrists (or 273 percent more than the number now employed); and 1,028 additional social workers (or 51 percent more than the number now employed). If these needs were met, the distribution of treatment personnel in correctional institutions other than jails would be about as follows: two out of eight would be psychologists (N = 1,328); one out of eight would be psychiatrists (N = 657); and five out of eight would be social workers (N = 2,955). Thus, the rate of shortage for these personnel as a group may be calculated as 93.7 percent of the total number reported to be employed (2,587).

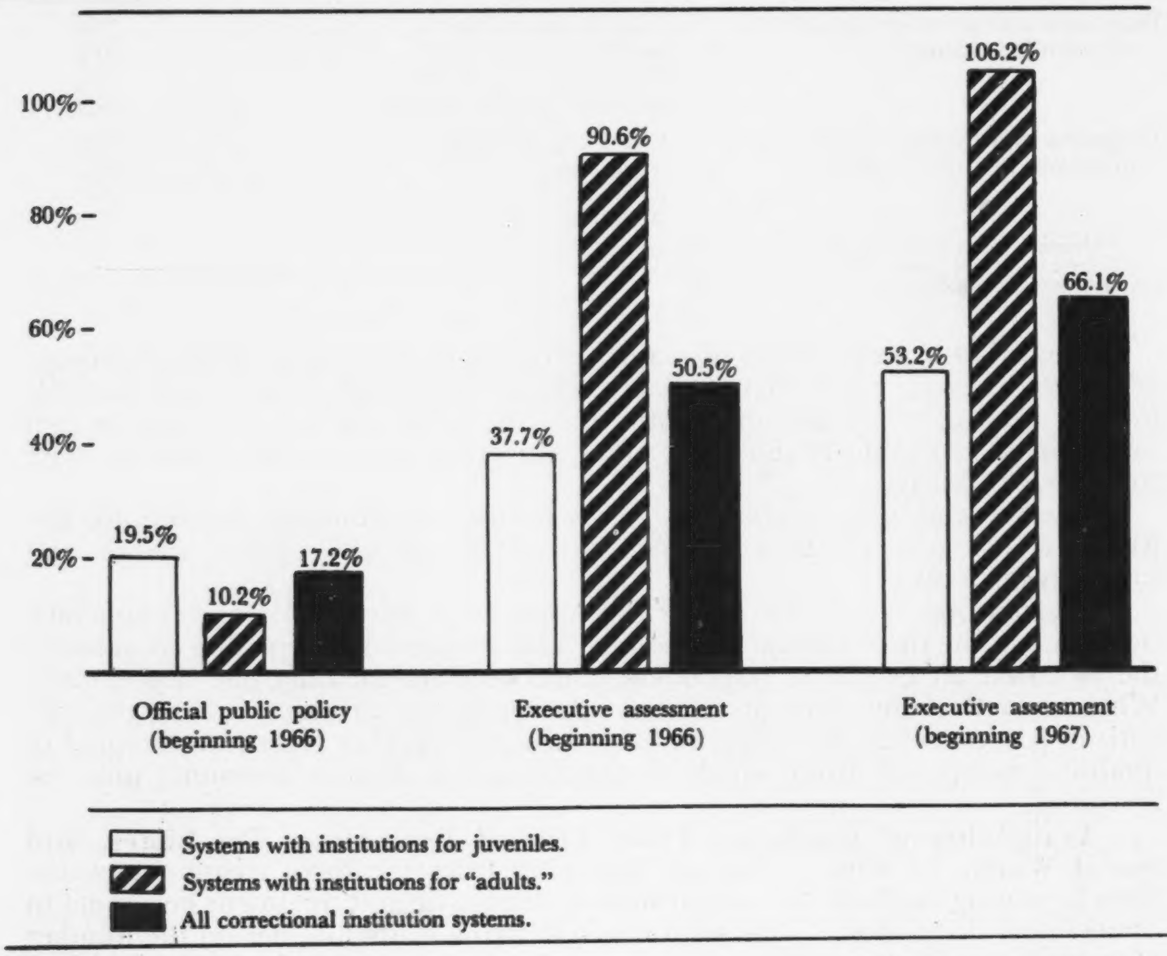
The standards used by the President's Commission survey to determine personnel need were established by the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards as follows: *Standards for Juvenile Institutions.* (a) A minimum of one full-time psychiatrist for each 150 children. (b) A minimum of one full-time psychologist for each 150 children. (c) A minimum of one social caseworker for every 30 children. *Standards for Institutions for Felony Offenders.* (a) The maximum workload for a caseworker assigned exclusively to the reception process is 30 cases per month. In general institution programs, there should be one counselor for every 150 inmates. (b) Clinical services (psychiatric, psychological, and counseling) for a general institution with a population of 600 inmates should include a minimum of one psychiatrist, three clinical psychologists, and three specialized counselors.

See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States," *op. cit.*, pp. 240, 275, 279.

[6] See table 4 above.

[7] See Piven and Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy, op. cit.*, vol. 1, charts II, III, and IV.

CHART VI.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67*



of diagnostic and treatment staff. By this standard, the shortage rate is 66.1 percent or almost twice that for any other staff in correctional institutions [8] and approximately the same as that for most personnel groups in probation/parole except training officers.[9]

These findings disclose that the extreme shortage of diagnostic and treatment staff in correctional institutions cannot be attributed to the quantitative standards of correctional executives. Public policy lags far behind their assessments of the number of clinical staff required for correctional institutions to function most effectively.

Availability of Qualified Personnel for Diagnostic and Treatment Positions in Correctional Institutions

The preceding section showed that even by the relatively modest standards of official public policy far too few clinical personnel were being recruited to diagnostic and treatment positions of correctional institutions.

This section is addressed to the following questions: Who are the potential recruits who could qualify as diagnostic and treatment personnel in correctional institutions? To what extent is qualified manpower being made available for recruitment to these positions?

Recommended Educational Standards for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel. The number of qualified persons available for recruitment to diagnostic and treatment positions depends on the standards used to determine who is qualified. For reasons stated previously, qualifying standards in this analysis will be based on executive judgment.[10] Additional sources and standards of qualification will be identified from project surveys and the literature.

---

[8] See table 4 above.

[9] See Piven and Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Critical Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy, op. cit.,* vol. 1, charts II, III, and IV.

[10] See "Recommended Educational Standards for Custody Personnel," in ch. 2.

TABLE 19.—*Education Recommended by Correctional Institution Executives to Qualify Personnel for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff*

Work role	University area recommended [a]	Percent of executives [b]
Diagnostic and treatment personnel in juvenile institutions	Clinical psychology	31.0
	Social work	31.0
	Psychiatry	23.9
	All other degree areas	14.1
Diagnostic and treatment personnel in prisons and reformatories	Clinical psychology	37.5
	Social work	25.0
	Psychiatry	20.3
	All other degree areas	17.2

[a] University area strongly advocated for a degree from among 11 choices.

[b] Percentages are based on responses of top executives of 93 major correctional institutional systems and do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

Almost all top executives of major correctional institution systems "strongly advocate" clinical psychology, social work, or psychiatry as the most suitable formal training to qualify diagnostic and treatment personnel of correctional institutions.[11] As table 19 shows, no other university area was advocated by more than a few executives.

The remaining eight choices were as follows: criminology, corrections, law (criminal and general), police science, psychology (general), police science, and sociology (general).

The findings in table 19 display a strikingly even distribution of recommendations among the three clinical professions. This is especially surprising considering the fact that an executive respondent could recommend only one degree area. Whereas each of the three professions apparently has advocates among the executives, it seems clear that these three professions together constitute the pool of qualified manpower from which diagnostic and treatment personnel must be recruited.

Availability of Graduates From Clinical Psychology, Psychiatry, and Social Work. To what extent are graduates from the three treatment professions becoming available for recruitment as diagnostic and treatment personnel in correctional institutions? This section will describe study findings on the number of trained practitioners produced for corrections by professional schools of clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work.

CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY. The Ph. D. program is widely acknowledged as the professionally qualifying degree in clinical psychology. At the time of survey, there were 67 accredited Ph. D. programs in clinical psychology in the United States.[12] Of these schools, 44 (or 66 percent) responded to the project mail questionnaire of approximately 10 pages. Questionnaire items were highly structured and precoded. Approximately two-thirds of the questionnaires were filled out by directors of the program; the remainder were completed by respondents in other administrative or teaching positions.

The 44 graduate clinical psychology schools from which data are drawn for this study are located in 22 States and the District of Columbia. Their regional distribution is shown in table 20.

TABLE 20.—*Location of Responding Clinical Psychology Schools by Region*

Region	Number of schools	Return rate (percent)
New England	(5)	83
Middle Atlantic	(8)	62
East North Central	(9)	64
West North Central	(7)	100
South Atlantic	(4)	67
East South Central	(2)	40
West South Central	(4)	80
Mountain	(3)	60
Pacific	(2)	33
Total	(44)	66

---

[11] See app. B for a description of the major correctional institution systems represented by these executives.

[12] See American Psychological Association, "Directors of Training, APA Approved Graduate Departments of Psychology 1965–66" (unpublished). This directory listed 68 schools; one of these was found to be discontinued.

The clinical psychology program is usually a special unit of the university's academic department of psychology. Some of these programs are organized to take a specific period of time (usually 4 or 5 academic years). The duration of many programs varies because a doctoral dissertation is required. Professional accreditation of the program is carried out through the American Psychological Association. Classroom courses and internship experience are integral parts of the program.

The most typical graduating class in clinical psychology during the academic year 1965–66 numbered six to 10 students. The overall average was seven. No school awarded more than 20 Ph. D. degrees. All 67 accredited clinical psychology schools in the United States produced a total of approximately 475 graduates during the 1965–66 academic year. However, only a small percentage of these graduates can be expected to be recruited into correctional institutional systems.

Several factors substantially reduce the pool of clinical psychology graduates likely to be available for recruitment to diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional systems. The first of these is competition from other fields in which clinical psychologists practice.

Disqualification by school evaluation is a second factor that is apt to reduce the manpower pool. Directors of clinical psychology programs regarded about 300, or almost two-thirds of their 1965–66 Ph. D. degree graduates, as not trained for practice in correctional settings.[13] The likelihood is that most clinical psychology graduates will be encouraged to seek careers in practice fields other than corrections.

A third factor is the specialization interest and experience of students.[14] Clinical psychology programs surveyed by this project report that about 45 clinical psychology graduates in 1965–66 had internships in correctional settings. They would be the most likely recruits to diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional institutions; however, relatively few of them will actually be recruited for practice in correctional institutions.

As table 21 shows, the new clinical psychology graduate going into corrections usually takes a position in a probation/parole agency or a court clinic.

According to these data, correctional institutions could expect to recruit approximately 20 new Ph. D.s from clinical psychology in 1965–66. These 20 graduates comprise 4.2 percent of all 475 clinical psychology Ph. D.s for the academic year.[15]

For the following academic year (1966–67) correctional institutions could expect to recruit approximately 20 to 25 new Ph. D. graduates from clinical psychology. This estimate is based upon the rate of expansion in correctional internships reported by the schools.

PSYCHIATRY. Professional training of psychiatrists takes place at psychiatric residency centers composed of one or more member training units located at teaching hospitals, institutions, or community agencies. Although the center is some-

TABLE 21.—*Positions Usually Filled by Clinical Psychology Students Who go Into Corrections Upon Graduation* [a]

Positions usually filled by clinical psychology graduates (Ph.D.)	Percent of clinical psychology schools
Treatment or consultant roles in probation and parole or court clinics	91
Correctional institution staff member	46
Supervisor or administrator in correctional institution	27
Supervisor or administrator in probation and parole	—
Other correctional position	—

[a] Data are based on responses of directors of clinical psychology programs concerning "the types of positions usually filled by those of your doctoral students who go into correctional settings upon graduation from the clinical psychology program."

---

[13] These figures are based on school responses to the following questionnaire item: "Approximately what proportion of these students (awarded a doctoral degree through your clinical psychology program in the academic year 1965–66) are trained so they can practice in correctional settings"

[14] According to Donald R. Jones of NIMH, one clinical psychologist in 10 lists any level of competence in the subspecialty "crime and delinquency." (Personal communication from Donald R. Jones, Research Psychologist, Mental Health Manpower Studies Unit, Training and Manpower Resources Branch, National Institute of Mental Health.)

[15] "Psychologists, by and large, have not exhibited the kind of dedication or involvement in corrections that other professions have shown." See Sheldon K. Edelman, "President's Message," *Correctional Psychologist*, December 1965, p. 1.

times affiliated with a university, residency training is essentially divorced from the university. At the time of survey, there were 234 accredited psychiatric residency centers in the United States.[16] Of this number, 184 (or 79 percent) responded to the project mail questionnaire. Approximately three-fifths of the questionnaires were filled out by directors of educational programs; the remainder were completed by respondents in other administrative or teaching positions of the hospital.

The 184 psychiatric residency centers from which data are drawn for this study are located in 36 States and the District of Columbia. Their regional distribution is shown in table 22.

The psychiatric residency requires 3 years of full-time training. The center program is approved by the Council on Medical Education and the American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology. The 3 years of training consist of didactic lectures (or seminars) and extensive practice experience with patients.

The typical psychiatric residency center graduated five residents during the academic year 1965–66. No center graduated more than 30 psychiatrists. All 234 psychiatric residency centers in the United States produced a total of about 1,250 graduates during the 1965–66 academic year.

Less than half of all psychiatric graduates (approximately 550 graduates, or 44 percent) were considered by directors of psychiatric programs as trained for practice in Criminal Justice settings. It is estimated that 185 of all the graduating psychiatrists in 1965–66 underwent training in a forensic, penal, or other specialization for practice in Criminal Justice. These 185 graduates are a likely pool of psychiatric manpower available for recruitment into corrections.

Perhaps one-third, or 60 graduates, will pursue their specialization in Criminal Justice rather than some alternative. Of this latter group, no more than half, or 30 graduates, can be expected to be recruited to positions in correctional institutions rather than to the courts or community practice.

According to these estimates, correctional institutions could expect to recruit approximately 30 new graduates from psychiatry in 1965–66. These 30 graduates comprise 2.4 percent of all 1,250 psychiatry graduates for the academic year.[17]

For the following academic year (1966–67) correctional institutions could expect to recruit approximately 30 to 35 new graduates from psychiatry. This figure is based on the rate of expansion in Criminal Justice specializations reported by the psychiatric residency centers.

SOCIAL WORK. Graduate schools of social work in the United States produced 3,653 M.S.W.s in 1965–66. Correctional institutions could expect to recruit approximately 100, or 2.7 percent, of these new graduates. Perhaps 50 of them fill

TABLE 22.—*Location of Responding Psychiatric Residency Centers by Region*

Region	Number of schools	Return rate (percent)
New England	(21)	88
Middle Atlantic	(55)	75
East North Central	(25)	71
West North Central	(17)	100
South Atlantic	(23)	72
East South Central	(5)	71
West South Central	(10)	83
Mountain	(5)	100
Pacific	(23)	79
Total	(184)	79

---

[16] See "Approved Residencies—Psychiatry," *The Journal of the American Medical Association,* 194, October–December 1965, pp. 227–235.

[17] The American Psychiatric Association conducted a survey of its members in active practice in 1961. A total of 10,934 psychiatrists were then practicing in the United States. Their findings showed one practicing psychiatrist to every 16,815 persons in the United States (a ratio of 5.96 per 100,000 population).

The Conference on Graduate Psychiatric Education held in December 1962, was concerned with the manpower shortages existing in the psychiatric field.

> Special areas of practice—child psychiatry, mental retardation, industrial, forensic, public health, and community psychiatry—are short in personnel in the nation and especially in certain sections. Personnel is very low in social agencies, correctional institutions, general hospitals, and mental hygiene clinics, and lowest of all in public mental hospitals.

See American Psychiatric Association, *Training the Psychiatrist to Meet Changing Needs, Report of the Conference on Graduate Psychiatric Education* (Washington, D.C.: 1964), pp. 121, 126, 204.

CHART VII.—*Manpower Needs for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff in Correctional Institutions, 1966–67, and the Availability of Qualified Personnel for Recruitment*

		Qualified personnel available [a]			
Diagnostic and treatment staff	Additional manpower needed [b]	Expected recruitment of clinical psychology graduates [c]	Expected recruitment of psychiatry graduates [c]	Expected recruitment of social work graduates [c]	Total expected recruitment
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	650	20	30	50	100
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	1,900	20	30	50	100
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	2,500	25	35	60	120

[a] Qualified by the criterion of executive judgment. See table 19.

[b] The number needed in addition to those employed in 432 correctional institution systems at the end of 1965. Numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 18.

[c] The total number of graduates who were apt to be recruited to diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional institutions. See "Availability of Graduates from Clinical Psychology, Psychiatry, and Social Work."

diagnostic and treatment positions and the remainder take jobs such as classification and general counseling personnel.[18]

For the academic year 1966–67, correctional institutions could expect to recruit approximately 50 to 60 M.S.W. graduates to diagnostic and treatment positions.[19]

Chart VII summarizes findings on the number of qualified clinical psychologists, pyschiatrists, and social workers available in relation to manpower needs for diagnostic and treatment personnel of correctional institutions.[20] In 1965–66, a total of about 100 graduates was available from all three professions. This number increased to about 110 to 120 the following year.

The findings in chart VII indicate that in 1965–66 clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work together produced about 15 percent of the diagnostic and treatment personnel needed to fill existing official vacancies in correctional institutions. These professional schools produced about 5 percent of the additional treatment staff that correctional executives judged were needed for the most effective operation of their institutions.[21]

It is clear that the three treatment professions are producing only a small fraction of the qualified personnel needed for diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional institutions. The following section, therefore, will consider the feasibility of expanding professional manpower from schools of clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work.

Feasibility of Expanding the Pool of Professional Graduates for Diagnostic and Treatment Positions in Correctional Institutions

The feasibility of professional expansion with respect to correctional practice depends in large part on conditions within the schools and on outside support from the academic and professional community.

In this section, we shall consider whether the professional schools endorse their programs as suitable qualification for diagnostic and treatment personnel; and if they do, whether they are prepared to expand their programs in order to produce a larger number of graduates for correctional practice. Finally, we shall examine whether the educational resources exist and whether they can be mobilized for major expansion.

It will also be necessary to determine whether the academic and professional community is favorably disposed toward expansion of correctional programs in the schools. Without the support of these groups, the professional schools are unlikely to consider, or be able to implement, expansion of their programs for correctional practice.

---

[18] A more detailed analysis of the social work pool available for recruitment to correctional institutions is found in ch. 4, "Size of the M.S.W. Manpower Pool for Correctional Institutions."

[19] See ch. 4.

[20] This analysis assumes that the number of qualified treatment staff leaving correctional institutions during the year for other fields is about the same as the number being recruited into these systems from other practice fields.

[21] The number of available graduates from clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work is 4.1 percent of the 2,424 additional such personnel reported to be needed in correctional institutions (excluding local jails) in 1966 by the President's Crime Commission survey. See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States," *op. cit.*, table 13, p. 240.

Conditions Within Graduate Schools of Clinical Psychology, Psychiatry, and Social Work[22]

CONCURRENCE OF SCHOOLS AND CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS ON EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS. As was indicated earlier, correctional executives want clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers for their diagnostic and treatment staff. No other discipline was thought to provide appropriate training for these positions.

Do the schools concur with these standards? Expansion is unlikely unless there is agreement on educational standards between those who train and those who hire.

As is shown in table 23, deans and directors of the three populations of professional schools each regard their own training program as providing the most suitable qualification for diagnostic and treatment personnel of correctional institutions. Specifically, directors of clinical psychology programs strongly advocate training in clinical psychology (78 percent), directors of psychiatric residency centers strongly advocate training in psychiatry (69 percent), and deans of social work schools strongly advocate training in social work (84 percent).

These findings signify that the professional schools do not consider the training of diagnostic and treatment personnel in correctional institutions to be "somebody else's job." In fact, each professional school population apparently claims a mandate for these positions: clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work each endorse their own training program as the most appropriate educational standard for diagnostic and treatment personnel.

LEGITIMACY OF SPECIALIZED CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS IN PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY, PSYCHIATRY, AND SOCIAL WORK. A primary target for expansion is the pool of professional school graduates with specialized training for practice with offenders. This group of graduates is most likely to be knowledgeable about correctional practice and to pursue their careers in the correctional field.

However, relatively few of the professional schools offer an extensive program of specialization for practice with offenders.[23] Of the three treatment professions, psychiatry is the only one that offers a formal specialization of this kind. About a fourth of the psychiatric residency centers report one or more specialized training programs in forensic psychiatry, penal psychiatry, "or other specialization for practice in Criminal Justice settings."[24]

Neither clinical psychology nor social work offers a formal specialization in corrections. About a third of the social work schools meet minimal criteria for a correctional specialization by offering at least one classroom course in corrections plus fieldwork experience in correctional settings.[25] Only two programs in clinical psychology meet these minimal criteria for a correctional specialization.[26]

TABLE 23.—*Education Recommended by Deans of Professional Schools to Qualify Personnel for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff in Correctional Institutions*

	University area recommended [a]			
Professional School Respondents	Clinical psychology (Percent)	Psychiatry (Percent)	Social work (Percent)	All other areas [b] (Percent)
Directors—clinical psychology [c]	78	6	12	4
Directors—psychiatric residency [d]	18	69	2	11
Deans—social work [e]	2	8	84	6

[a] University area "strongly advocated" for a degree from among 11 choices. Percentages do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

[b] Criminology; corrections; law (general); law (criminal); police science; psychology (general); public administration; and sociology (general).

[c] Percentages are based on responses of directors from 44 clinical psychology programs.

[d] Percentages are based on responses of directors from 184 psychiatric residency centers.

[e] Percentages are based on responses of deans from 50 social work schools.

---

[22] The doctoral program in clinical psychology, the psychiatric residency center, and the graduate school of social work are collectively referred to as professional schools.

[23] For a directory of professional school programs in Criminal Justice, see Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education and Training for Criminal Justice—A Directory of Programs in Universities and Agencies (1965–67), op. cit.*

[24] Almost all residency centers offer the opportunity for practice experience with offenders.

[25] Almost all schools offer the opportunity for practice experience with offenders.

[26] About one-fourth of the clinical psychology programs offered practice experience with offenders (internships) in 1965–66.

In view of the fact that relatively few professional schools offer an extensive program of specialization for practice with offenders, there is a question whether programs of this kind are considered professionally or academically legitimate.

Psychiatric specializations such as forensic and penal psychiatry are apparently regarded as highly legitimate. Almost 96 percent (N=151) of the directors of psychiatric residency centers want to expand the number of "special training programs for psychiatric practice in Criminal Justice settings."[27] About 2 percent (N=4) believe that the number of existing programs of this kind "is about right." Only 2 percent (N=4) "disapprove of these programs as part of a psychiatric residency."

In clinical psychology and social work, however, a substantial minority of the schools do not legitimate a correctional specialization. As table 24 shows, whereas a majority of directors of clinical psychology (71 percent) and deans of social work (61 percent) approve of specialized correctional programs being offered in schools such as their own, about a third of them disapprove of these programs at the university or approve of them only as special noncredit programs.

The findings in table 24 indicate that despite some opposition in social work and clinical psychology, specialized professional training for practice with offenders is generally regarded as legitimate within each population of professional schools.[28] Most directors and deans of the professional schools apparently recognize that the way in which they will produce more and better qualified graduates for practice with offenders is through specialized professional training.

READINESS OF PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS TO EXPAND STUDENT TRAINING FOR WORK WITH OFFENDERS. Each of the professional school populations is ideologically committed to training practitioners for diagnosis and treatment of offenders in correctional institutions. Each adheres to an educational standard that prescribes their professional degree for these positions. And their directors and deans generally legitimate an extensive specialized training program in their schools for practice with offenders.

A question that arises is whether clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work schools are prepared to act on these commitments if additional funds are made available for training purposes. About one-fourth of the clinical psychology schools (28.2 percent) report that they are "not now interested in Federal funds for additional training of students to work with offenders." The comparable percentage from other schools are 19.2 percent in psychiatry and 2.1 percent in social work.

As can be seen in table 25, the great majority of professional schools report they are ready to expand training for work with offenders if additional funds are made available. Most schools are prepared to employ additional faculty for training students to work with offenders. Most schools of social work and clinical psychology and about half the psychiatric residency centers are prepared to use additional scholarships that are earmarked for students training for practice with offenders.[29] Except for half the social work schools, relatively few of the other schools are prepared to expand their physical facilities for this purpose; and only

TABLE 24.—*Extent to Which Professional Schools of Clinical Psychology and Social Work Legitimate Specialized Programs With a Concentration in Corrections*[a] *at Schools Such as Their Own*

	Approve as degree programs		Do not approve as degree programs	
Professional school respondents	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Directors—clinical psychology (Ph. D.)	70.6	(24)	29.4	[b](10)
Deans—social work	61.0	(25)	39.0	[c](16)

[a] 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study.

[b] Directors who disapprove of Ph. D. programs in clinical psychology with a concentration in corrections being offered at the university and those who approve of them only as special noncredit programs.

[c] Deans of social work who disapprove of M.S.W. programs with a concentration in corrections being offered at the university and those who approve of them only as special noncredit programs.

---

[27] Most of them favor a "major expansion."

[28] The views of other academics and professionals regarding the legitimacy of these specializations will be described later in this chapter under "Conditions within the University and Professional Complex."

[29] This reflects the current situation of the schools in relation to student stipends. All psychiatry residents receive remuneration during their training, although the amount that can be considered a stipend varies considerably. About a third of the clinical psychology students and a fifth of the social work students receive stipends worth $3,600 or more for the academic year.

TABLE 25.—*Readiness of Professional Schools to Expand Student Training for Work With Offenders if Federal Funds Are Made Available*

Training resource earmarked for work with offenders	Percent of schools prepared to use funds		
	Clinical psychology	Psychiatry	Social work
Scholarships to students	69.2	48.8	93.8
Salaries for additional faculty	66.2	77.9	95.8
Expanded physical facilities	28.2	29.7	52.1
Crime and Delinquency Training Center responsible to school	7.7	*	27.1
Total schools prepared to use funds	71.8	80.8	97.9
Number	(28)	(139)	(47)

* Item omitted for this population.

a small number of schools are prepared to assume responsibility for a Crime and Delinquency Training Center.

The findings indicate that most of the professional schools, especially those of social work, are willing and ready to expand their training programs and their number of graduates for work with offenders—if additional training resources are made available to them.

TRAINING RESOURCES NEEDED BY PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS FOR EXPANDED PROGRAMS IN WORK WITH OFFENDERS. Whether the professional schools can mobilize vital training resources for expanded programs depends in part on the scope of expansion. In order to identify the particular training resources needed for expansion, we have drawn upon the experience of the professional schools in the planning and organizing of their specialized courses and field experience for practice with offenders.

Most professional schools report that their training programs for practice with offenders were hindered by a shortage of funds available for this purpose during 1965–66. This was especially true in clinical psychology.

A large majority of schools reported that their training programs were hindered by limited space and faculty overload. In most instances, these two problems could be solved directly by additional funds.

Good faculty for courses in practice with offenders was apparently a problem in about half the schools of social work and psychiatry and three-fourths of the clinical psychology schools. Most schools of social work and clinical psychology reported that there were not enough suitable agencies available to them for student field training (internships) with offenders.[30]

There is apparently no shortage of good students available to social work for training in corrections. However, almost half the schools of clinical psychology and about one-fourth of the psychiatric centers report that this was a problem in 1965–66. These differences may reflect a greater interest in corrections practice among high quality social work students than among clinical psychology and psychiatry students. It is also possible that the variations in good students available for corrections reported is related to different standards of recruitment into the schools or different conceptions of what constitutes a "good student."

Table 26 identifies the extent to which particular training resources are needed, based on the experience of the three populations of professional schools.

Conditions Within the University and Professional Complex. The support or oposition of several strategic groups within the university and professional complex is apt to be of great importance in determining whether clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work are able to expand their educational programs for practice with offenders. Even if financial subsidies are made available, major expansion of specialized programs is not likely to occur in the professional schools unless these programs are acceptable to key groups in the university and professional communities.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING FOR DIAGNOSTIC AND TREATMENT PERSONNEL IN CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS—CONSENSUS AND DIVERGENCE ON STANDARDS. As described previously, fairly equal proportions of correctional executives advocated professional training in clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social

---

[30] This item was omitted for psychiatry because the centers do not usually have to rely on outside agencies for this purpose. A substitute item disclosed that 24.3 percent of the psychiatric residency centers reported "good university affiliation" as a needed resource in connection with their Criminal Justice programs.

TABLE 26.—*Resources Needed by Professional Schools for Training Programs in Work With Offenders*

Needed resource	Percent of schools [a] Clinical psychology [b]	Psychiatry [c]	Social work [d]
Funds	92.0	75.5	61.0
Space	92.0	56.4	77.4
Lower faculty workload	84.2	81.3	83.3
Good faculty	76.2	43.4	47.4
Suitable agencies for field placements (internships)	60.0	*	55.0
Good students	46.2	27.0	10.7
Total schools lacking at least one training resource	93.9	88.4	90.7

[a] Percentages do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

[b] Data are based on responses of 44 schools concerning the factors that hindered them in planning or organizing internships or classroom courses in clinical psychology for correctional practice (academic year 1965–66).

[c] Data are based on responses of 184 psychiatric residency centers concerning the factors that hindered them in planning or organizing training lectures or case experiences for psychiatric practice in Criminal Justice settings (academic year 1965–66).

[d] Data are based on responses of 50 schools concerning the factors that hindered them in planning or organizing fieldwork or classroom courses in corrections (academic year 1965–66).

* Item omitted for this population.

work to qualify personnel for diagnostic and treatment positions. No other discipline was considered suitable by these executives.

The educational standard endorsed by professional schools follows a clear pattern of professional parochialism. An overwhelming majority of deans from each school population strongly advocated their own professional training to qualify personnel for diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional institutions.

As is shown in table 27, other academic and professional groups surveyed by the project generally advocate professional training in clinical psychology or psychiatry.

The findings suggest that there is substantial support in the academic and professional communities to expand professional training in clinical psychology and psychiatry in order to produce diagnostic and treatment personnel for practice in correctional institutions. Social work has a fairly sizable number of advocates among probation/parole executives and college presidents.

A number of influential organizations refer to educational standards for diagnostic and treatment personnel. The American Correctional Association mentions "a diagnostic and treatment team" that should consist of specialists and technicians from the fields of "sociology, psychology, psychiatry, social casework and related disciplines." [31]

The Special Task Force on Correctional Standards of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice designates psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, and "specialized counselors" as the personnel for "clinical services" in correctional institutions for felons.[32] The personnel designated for

TABLE 27.—*Education Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff in Correctional Institutions*

Source of standard	Number surveyed	University area recommended [a] Clinical psychology (Percent)	Psychiatry (Percent)	Social work (Percent)	All other areas [b] (Percent)
Academic executives:					
College presidents and department chairmen	(511)	35	22	16	27
Deans—law	(83)	40	44	6	10
Directors—Crime and Delinquency Centers	(26)	29	24	18	29
Criminal Justice executives (other than executives of correctional institution systems):					
Probation/parole systems	(146)	34	23	27	16
Law enforcement systems	(108)	33	49	3	15

[a] University area "strongly advocated" for a degree from among 11 choices. Percentages do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

[b] Criminology; corrections; law (general); law (criminal); police science; psychology (general); public administration; and sociology (general).

---

[31] American Correctional Association, *op. cit.*, Principle XXI, p. 487.

[32] The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections, op. cit.*, p. 210.

juvenile institutions by the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards are psychiatrists, psychologists, and social caseworkers.[33]

The National Council on Crime and Delinquency identifies eight kinds of services requiring "sufficient qualified staff" for detention homes. Three of these staff categories are casework services, group work services, and psychological and psychiatric services.[34] The standard of formal education for a "social caseworker" is "graduate training in social work." [35] The desirable educational qualifications for a "group worker" is "an M.S.W. in social group work" although "personal qualifications are far more important than college degrees." [36] No formal standards of education are designated for staff who provide "psychological and psychiatric services." These latter personnel presumably require the professional training that clinical psychology and psychiatry consider necessary in order to be professionally qualified (i.e., a Ph. D. in clinical psychology and completion of the three-year residency in psychiatry).

"Pyschiatry, psychology and social work" are the disciplines "that produce clinical personnel" in correctional institutions, according to Bernard Russell, former Chief of the Training Branch of the Children's Bureau.[37] Other publications of the Children's Bureau designate the same three professions for diagnostic and treatment personnel of correctional institutions. For example:

> The terms "clinical personnel" and "clinician" refer to members of various professions who are employed by institutions to provide diagnostic and treatment services, such as: psychiatrists, social workers, psychologists, group therapists, etc.[38]

The Arden House Conference of June 24–26, 1964, identified no specific level or university area of training to qualify personnel for diagnostic and treatment positions in corrections. A decision of the Conference was the following:

> Pre-Entry Preparation
>
> 1. When tasks are identified for which graduate professional education is necessary, the field of corrections should collaborate with the professional schools, graduate schools, and educational and other professional associations to develop and improve guidelines for curricula.[39]

Ernest W. Witte, a prominent participant of the Conference and dean of a graduate school of social work mentioned the need of corrections for the services of many professionals, including "lawyers, physicians, psychiatrists, psychologists, vocational counselors, educators, social workers, and administrators." [40] Witte went on to say that "despite its interdisciplinary personnel, corrections can properly be identified as one of the 'social services'" and that graduate social work education is the appropriate education for many treatment personnel.

> Graduate social work education provides the most relevant preparation currently available for many persons expecting to enter positions involving treatment services for juvenile and adult offenders. There is continuing need for the improvement of the education offered by schools of social work for personnel in corrections.[41]

The relevant professional associations are often surprisingly silent on the matter of professional qualifications for diagnostic and treatment personnel in correctional institutions. The American Psychological Association reports that they "have no published or unpublished standards concerning education for the practice of psychology in correctional systems." [42]

---

[33] *Ibid.*, p. 212. These personnel groups are abstracted from staff ratios but are apparently intended for "clinical services."

[34] National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Standards and Guides for the Detention of Children and Youth* (New York: 1961), pp. 41–42.

[35] *Ibid.*, p. 45.

[36] *Ibid.*, p. 49.

[37] Bernard Russell, "Current Training Needs in the Field of Juvenile Delinquency," *Juvenile Delinquency Facts and Facets* (Washington, D.C.: Children's Bureau, 1960), No. 8, p. 12.

[38] Elliot Studt and Bernard Russell, *Staff Training for Personnel in Institutions for Juvenile Delinquents*, Children's Bureau Publication 364, p. 20. See also *Administration and Staff Training in Institutions for Juvenile Delinquents*, Children's Bureau Publication 377, 1959, pp. 15–16.

[39] "Decisions of the Conference," in Charles S. Prigmore (ed.), *Manpower and Training for Corrections: Proceedings of an Arden House Conference, June 24–26, 1964* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1966), p. xi. (Direct quote.)

[40] See Ernest F. Witte, "Expanding Educational Facilities for Social Work Manpower," in Prigmore (ed.), *Manpower and Training for Corrections, op. cit.*, p. 98.

[41] *Ibid.*

The Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency of the Committee on Psychiatry of Childhood and Adolescence, American Psychiatric Association, urged psychiatry "to direct its special knowledge and skills to combatting juvenile delinquency." It reminded the profession that "indeed, child psychiatry, as a subspecialty, had its origins in early attempts to cope with problems of juvenile delinquency." It recommended that the psychiatrist make his contribution to overcoming juvenile delinquency "as clinician in diagnosis, treatment and rehabilitation" and as collaborator, consultant, teacher, and research investigator.[43]

The National Association of Social Workers identifies "correctional services" as one of the seven practice fields under social work mandate. The Council on Social Work Education considers social work training to be "generic" in nature and therefore suitable for practice in "correctional services." [44]

> This policy provides that a school of social work shall be accredited for its basic curriculum, and that there shall be no accrediting of any specialization by any definition.
>
> Underlying this policy is the belief that the two-year graduate social work curriculum provides basic professional preparation for practice in the variety of programs, services, and agencies which fall within the general field of social work.[45]

The National Association of Social Workers does not specifically identify its educational standards for diagnostic and treatment personnel in correctional institutions. It does state that "effective programs designed for the prevention of crime or the treatment of criminals depend largely on the quality of the personnel." [46] And it mentions that "note should be taken of the serious shortage of personnel available to staff corrective and treatment programs of probation and parole and institutional services." [47]

In summary, many organizations and groups indicate educational standards to qualify "clinical" or "diagnostic and treatment" personnel for practice in correctional institutions. The three professions to which they generally refer are clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work. The formal education required for certification in these professions is the Ph. D. in clinical psychology, the 3-year residency in psychiatry, and the master's degree in social work. No identifiable education (e.g., in sociology, general psychology, or criminology) is advocated as a preferable alternative by any substantial number of professional organizations or academic executives.

LEGITIMACY OF SPECIALIZED CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS IN PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS. As described earlier in this chapter, psychiatry is the only one of the three treatment professions that offers formal specializations in Criminal Justice. Almost all the directors of psychiatric residency centers (96 percent) not only approve of "special training programs for psychiatric practice in Criminal Justice settings" [illegible] favor expansion of such programs.

It was also shown that most directors of clinical psychology programs (71 percent) approve of a Ph. D. specialization in corrections in schools such as their own. And most social work deans (61 percent) approve of an M.S.W. specialization in corrections.

Why, then, do clinical psychology and social work not follow the pattern of psychiatry and introduce correctional specializations into their professional degree programs? The explanation for this failure must be found in reasons other than

---

[42] Private correspondence (Nov. 14, 1967) from Stuart E. Golann, Associate Administrative Officer for Professional Affairs, American Psychological Association.

[43] *Psychiatry and Juvenile Delinquency,* report of the Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency of the Committee on Psychiatry of Childhood and Adolescence. Approved by the Council of the American Psychiatric Association for distribution through the APA Mail Pouch, December 1963.

[44] For an analysis of professional education in social work, clinical psychology, psychiatry, and law as applied to Criminal Justice, see Herman Piven, "Patterns of Education in Four Professions as Related to Practice Competence" (mimeographed, 1968).

[45] Council on Social Work Education, *Graduate Professional Schools of Social Work in Canada and the U.S.A.* (New York: January 1965), p. 2.

[46] National Association of Social Workers, *Goals of Public Social Policy* (New York: rev. ed., 1966), p. 43.

[47] *Ibid.,* p. 44.

TABLE 28.—*Extent to Which Universities and Professional Schools Legitimate Specialized Programs With a Concentration in Corrections*[a] *at Schools of Social Work and Clinical Psychology*

Academic respondents	Social work—M.S.W.				Clinical psychology—Ph. D.			
	Approve as degree programs		Do not approve as degree programs[b]		Approve as degree programs		Do not approve as degree programs[b]	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
College presidents and department chairmen	87.6	(296)	12.4	(42)	—	*	—	*
Directors—clinical psychology (Ph. D.)	90.0	(30)	9.1	(3)	—	—	—	—
Directors—psychiatric residency centers	83.2	(129)	16.8	(26)	80.4	(123)	19.6	(30)
Deans—law	87.7	(64)	12.3	(9)	92.9	(65)	7.1	(5)
Total academic respondents	86.6	(519)	13.4	(80)	84.3	(188)	15.7	(35)

[a] 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study.

[b] Includes respondents who disapprove of these programs at the university and respondents who approve of them only as special noncredit programs.

* Item omitted for this population.

restrictions imposed on these disciplines by the academic community. As can be seen in table 28, there is overwhelming approval among academic respondents for the master's degree program in social work and the Ph. D. program in clinical psychology to offer extensive specialized training in corrections.

The extent of academic approval for the social work and clinical psychology programs with a specialization in corrections may be illustrated by comparison with other proposed specializations. Undergraduate programs with a concentration in police science were approved by 52.5 percent (N=321) of the academic respondents. LL.B. (J.D.) programs with a concentration in criminal law were approved by 84.0 percent (N=494).

These findings demonstrate that failure to institute social work and clinical psychology degree programs that are designed to produce correctional specialists cannot be attributed to lack of academic sanction. A national policy to inaugurate such programs would apparently receive strong support throughout the academic community.

ACTIVE SUPPORT OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS IN THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS. Is there active support for the professional schools in the planning and organizing of their educational programs for practice with offenders? Have other academic and professional groups been cooperative, or have they made it more difficult for the school to carry out these programs?

Table 29 shows how many correctional agencies report that they are willing to provide facilities for student field placements and internships.[48] About four out of five correctional agencies are willing to accept social work students and provide facilities for their fieldwork training. Social work was mentioned far more frequently than was any other school or department of the university.

A lesser but substantial number of correctional agencies, especially institutional systems, are willing to do the same for psychology students. Psychology ranked second among correctional institutions and third overall.

The findings in table 29 challenge a prevalent assumption among educators from professional schools that field placements or internships are seldom available in correctional agencies. This assumption is an important one because it provides a basis for "explaining" the shortage of professional manpower in corrections.

> As you are aware, this conference was called for the stated purpose of developing "action designs for increasing the number of social work and other professional field placements or internships in correctional agencies and institutions in these states." This purpose is stated on the first page of the Council on Social Work Education's Document No. 63–96–18, dated July 31, 1963, which presents the formal proposals for this conference. On the same page, you will see that this purpose is based on the premise (supported by the findings of various studies and surveys) that "a primary [cause of] the manpower shortage in corrections, particularly as it affects professionally educated social workers and other professions, is the lack of field placements in correctional agencies and institutions." [49]

TABLE 29.—*Agency Willingness to Provide Fieldwork Training Facilities for Social Work and Psychology Students*

	Willing to provide facilities			
	For social work		For psychology	
Correctional system	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Correctional institutions [a]	77.5	(55)	59.2	(42)
Probation/parole [b]	81.0	(81)	32.0	(32)
Total systems	79.5	(136)	49.3	(74)

[a] Data are based on responses of 71 major correctional institution systems to an open-ended question that asked them to identify the university departments, if any, from which they were willing to accept students and provide facilities for fieldwork training.

[b] Data are based on responses of 100 major probation/parole systems.

---

[48] Psychiatry is omitted from this discussion because it does not usually have to rely on outside agencies to provide access to patients for resident training. Training cases for the resident are provided directly through the psychiatric center or its affiliated organizations.

[49] Tully McCrea, "Manpower Needs in the Field of Corrections," in Charles S. Prigmore (ed.), *The Expansion of Correctional Field Placements and Internships* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1965), p. 6. Parentheses and brackets in original.

It is difficult to reconcile project findings from correctional agencies with the assumption stated above. One possibility is a disjunction in location between schools and agencies, but this seems unlikely. Most of the professional schools are located in the vicinity of major correctional agencies that report a willingness to provide fieldwork facilities for students.

A second possibility is that relatively few correctional agencies meet professional criteria for student training. This may be the case in clinical psychology, because the American Psychological Association evaluates, "approves," and publishes a list of selected agencies that meet its explicit national standards for doctoral internship training.[50]

In the academic year 1965–66, for example, this list contained only 95 agencies and hospitals in the entire country.[51]

Unlike clinical psychology, social work has no professional organization, machinery, or national standards that determine agency suitability—or lack of suitability—for fieldwork training. It seems unlikely, then, that many correctional agencies that express their willingness to provide fieldwork facilities for social work students can be considered unsuitable by "professional criteria" (even though a particular agency may not be considered suitable by a particular school).

For these reasons, it is difficult to explain the shortage of trained social workers for corrections on the basis of a lack of available correctional field placements. It seems more likely that many social work schools have paid insufficient attention to correctional systems as potential training agencies. It would also appear that the correctional system has no explicit professional standards to which it can refer in an effort to meet social work criteria as a suitable training agency.

A second set of findings draws on the actual experience of the social work schools and psychiatric residency centers for the academic year 1965–66. Table 30 shows that the training programs of social work and psychiatry for work with offenders were supported by almost all academic and professional groups. Clinical psychology is omitted from this table because only 16 out of 44 schools reported their experience "in planning or organizing internships or classroom courses in clinical psychology for correctional practice." The level of response coincides with the paucity of correctional programs in clinical psychology. Among the 16 respondents from clinical psychology to this set of items, half reported opposition to their correctional programs from members of the faculty within their own department. Since clinical psychology is usually located within a graduate department that also offers nonclinical specializations (e.g., experimental psychology), it is reasonable to infer that these latter groups are a source of opposition to clinical specializations in corrections.

TABLE 30.—*Extent of Support for Correctional (Criminal Justice) Training Programs in Schools of Social Work and Psychiatry*

	Percent of schools			
	Social work [a]		Psychiatry [b]	
Academic or professional groups	Support	Opposition	Support	Opposition
Personnel in university (hospital) administration	95.7	4.3	92.7	7.3
Personnel from other departments of the university (hospital)	88.2	11.8	88.1	11.9
Personnel within own school (center)	87.1	12.9	96.6	3.4
Faculty senate or university committees	80.0	20.0	(*)	(*)
Professional associations and their related committees	88.5	11.5	100.0	0.0
Personnel in correctional (and court) agencies in the community	86.2	13.8	87.0	13.0

[a] Data are based on responses of 31 schools concerning the groups whose actions and attitudes helped or hindered them in planning or organizing fieldwork or classroom courses in corrections for the academic year 1965/66. Percentages do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

[b] Data are based on responses of 96 psychiatric residency centers concerning the groups whose actions and attitudes helped or hindered them in planning or organizing training lectures or case experiences for psychiatric practice in Criminal Justice settings for the academic year 1965/66. Percentages do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

* Item omitted for this population.

---

[50] Minimum standards are stated in the *American Psychologist*, vol. 13, 1958, pp. 59–60.

[51] See Sherman Ross, "Internships for Doctoral Training in Clinical Psychology Approved by the American Psychological Association," *American Psychologist*, vol. 20, 1965, pp. 836–838.

The experience of social work schools and psychiatric residency centers indicates that active support is available to expand their educational programs for practice with offenders. They can generally rely on assistance from their administration and faculty, their professional associations, and correctional and court agencies in the community.

Strategies and Costs Required to Expand the Pool of Professional Graduates for Diagnostic and Treatment Positions in Correctional Institutions

This final section will consider two strategies for increasing the pool of professional graduates recruited to clinical positions in correctional institutions.[54] The cost of the first strategy is about 42 times as great as the second.

The first strategy is predicated on the assumption that correctional institutions will only share in a general expansion of professional education and that their need for professional personnel will receive neither greater nor lesser attention than is now the case. This means that correctional institutions will continue to recruit about the same proportion of professional graduates as they do now but will fill their manpower shortages as the size of the graduating class is increased each year.

How many graduates are required from the professional schools in order to meet existing manpower needs for clinical personnel? The minimal number of additional diagnostic and treatment personnel needed in correctional institutions is 650 (excluding local jails). This is the number of *official vacancies* at the beginning of 1966, positions that had already been budgeted but were unfilled. At the current rate of recruitment, it would take over 30,000 additional graduates from professional schools of clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work to fill these official vacancies. It would cost *over $695 million* to produce this additional pool of professional graduates in order to fill minimal manpower needs for diagnostic and treatment staff.

At the current rate of recruitment, it would take 115,000 additional graduates from the professional schools in order to provide correctional institutions with the 2,500 clinicians they need to operate "*most effectively*." The cost of this output would be *more than $2.6 billion*.

Chart VIII gives conservative estimates of the number and cost of additional professional school graduates required to fill the need for clinical personnel of correctional institutions.

These cost estimates assume that the current rate at which professionals are recruited to diagnostic and treatment positions remains stable. The estimates are probably conservative for the following reasons: (1) it is assumed that the need for clinical personnel does not increase due to factors such as a rise in the inmate population; (2) it is assumed that there is no attrition of clinical staff; [53] (3) it is assumed that the cost of professional education does not increase; [54] (4) local jails and workhouses are excluded from all estimates.

For comparison, we have estimated the cost of producing the additional clinical personnel that are reported to be needed by the survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, based on standards of the Special Task Force.[55] At the current rate of recruitment, it would cost about $504.2 million to produce the 915 psychologists that are reported as needed, $767.7 million for the 481 needed psychiatrists, and $1.1 billion for the 1,028 needed social workers. The total cost for these personnel is, therefore,

---

[52] A third strategy, designed to provide correctional institutions with their "fair share" of social work graduates, is analyzed in ch. 4.

[53] Ernest Witte estimates that the attrition rate of persons employed in social work positions is from 5 to 8 percent a year. See Ernest F. Witte, "Expanding Educational Facilities for Social Work Manpower," *op. cit.*, pp. 98–99.

[54] The estimated costs for clinical psychology and psychiatry graduates include stipends and are based on the year 1960–61. See National Institute of Mental Health, Training Branch, *Survey of Funding and Expenditures for Training of Mental Health Personnel, 1960–61* (Washington, D.C.: January 1963), table 3, p. 5.

The estimated costs for social work graduates are based on stipend figures reported to the project by the schools, and an estimated school budget prepared by the Council on Social Work Education. See their *Budgetary Estimate for New Schools* (mimeographed, August 10, 1967).

[55] See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *op. cit.*, table 13, p. 240.

CHART VIII.—*Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel in Correctional Institutions With Additional Pools of Professional School Graduates, Assuming Current Rate of Recruitment*

Diagnostic and treatment staff	Additional manpower needed [a]	Additional graduates needed [b]				Training costs [c] in millions of dollars			
		Clinical psychology [d]	Psychiatry [e]	Social work [f]	Total	Clinical psychology	Psychiatry	Social work	Total
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	650	5,150	9,050	15,850	30,050	119.6	346.4	229.7	695.7
Executive assessment, beginning 1966 [g]	1,900	15,000	26,400	46,200	87,600	348.8	1,010.3	670.0	2,029.1
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	2,500	19,750	34,750	60,800	115,300	459.0	1,329.5	881.7	2,670.2

[a] The number needed in addition to those employed in 432 correctional institution systems at the end of 1965. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 18.

[b] This is calculated on the basis that each of the 3 professions provides one-third of the additional manpower needed.

[c] The cost of producing one additional graduate is estimated at $23,250 in clinical psychology, $38,275 in psychiatry, and $14,500 in social work.

[d] For every 23.7 clinical psychology gradutes (Ph. D.), one is recruited to diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional institutions (4.2 percent).

[e] For every 41.7 psychiatry graduates, one is recruited to diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional institutions (2.4 percent).

[f] For every 73 M.S.W. graduates, one is recruited to diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional institutions (1.4 percent).

[g] The executive assessments are based on the manpower need reported by top correctional executives for the "most effective operation" of their institutions beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

approximately $2.4 billion (excluding the manpower needed for "jails and local institutions").

A second strategy is predicated on the assumption that the rate at which professional school graduates are recruited to the correctional field can be substantially increased through specialized professional education. An expanded pool of clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers who are trained in professional practice with offenders is far more likely to enter the correctional field than those trained "generically" or in other specializations. How much would it cost, then, to produce a sufficient number of clinical specialists equivalent to the manpower need for diagnostic and personnel in correctional institutions?[56]

Chart IX shows that the training cost to produce a sufficient number of clinical specialists to fill *minimal manpower needs* (official vacancies) is *about $16.4 million,* and about $63.4 million for enough clinical specialists so that correctional institutions can function *"most effectively."* These cost estimates assume that every additional correctional specialist from the professional schools is recruited to diagnostic and treatment positions in correctional institutions.[57] The training cost for obtaining a sufficient number of clinical specialists by this strategy is about 2½ percent of what would cost by the strategy described earlier (current rate of recruitment).

Summary and Conclusions

Diagnostic and treatment staff comprise the smallest group of personnel in correctional institutions. This is especially true in prisons and other institutions for adult offenders where diagnostic and treatment personnel make up less than 2 percent of the staff.

The shortage of diagnostic and treatment personnel in correctional institutions is of crisis proportions. It is higher than for any other personnel group. It is especially acute in prisons and reformatories where diagnostic and treatment staff must be more than doubled if the institutions are to function most effectively. Public policy, however, has allotted only a fraction of the additional diagnostic and treatment positions that top correctional executives judge they need in institutions for adults.[58]

CHART IX.—*Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Diagnostic and Treatment Personnel in Correctional Institutions With Additional Pools of Professional Graduates, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Success* [a]

Diagnostic and treatment staff	Additional manpower needed [b]	Training Costs [c] in millions of dollars			
		Clinical psychology graduates [d]	Psychiatry graduates [e]	Social work graduates [f]	Total costs
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	650	5.0	8.3	3.1	16.4
Executive assessment, beginning 1966 [g]	1,900	14.7	24.2	9.2	48.1
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	2,500	19.4	31.9	12.1	63.4

[a] Assuming every additional graduate is recruited to diagnostic and treatment staff in correctional institutions (excluding local jails and workhouses).

[b] The number needed in addition to those employed in 432 correctional institution systems at the end of 1965. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 18.

[c] This is calculated on the basis that each of the 3 professions provides one-third of the additional manpower needed.

[d] The cost of producing an additional clinical psychology graduate is estimated at $23,250.

[e] The cost of producing an additional psychiatry graduate is estimated at $38,275.

[f] The cost of producing an additional social work graduate is estimated at $14,500.

[g] The executive assessments are based on the manpower need reported by top correctional executives for the "most effective operation" of their institutions beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

---

[56] The parallel cost estimates for additional social work specialists sufficient to meet the need for classification and counseling personnel are found in Ch. 4. Estimates for the number and cost of additional social work specialists to meet manpower needed in probation/parole are found in Piven and Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy, op. cit.,* vol. 1, Ch. 5.

[57] By this strategy, the total cost for the clinical personnel reported to be needed by the survey for the President's Commission is approximately $56.2 million, compared to $2.4 billion at the current rate of recruitment (excluding "jails and local institutions").

[58] The salaries assigned to these positions are generally not competitive. See "Salaries," ch. 4, regarding social work staff. See also National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *op. cit.,* table 7, p. 87.

Correctional executives want to hire clinical psychologists, psychiatrists and social workers for diagnostic and treatment roles. However, the professional schools have failed to provide even the meager number of diagnostic and treatment personnel allotted by public policy. Current programs in the professional schools produce a total of only about 100 to 120 graduates a year for these positions. At this rate, it would take 6 years to produce a sufficient number of graduates from clinical psychology, psychiatry, and social work to fill official vacancies that existed in 1966 for diagnostic and treatment staff. It would take 20 years to produce the number of professional graduates required for correctional institutions to operate "most effectively."

Although each of the three treatment professions considers its training to be the most suitable preparation for clinical positions in correctional institutions, a major expansion of graduates for these positions is probably most feasible in psychiatry.

Conditions within the psychiatric residency centers and in the professional complex are highly favorable for expansion of Criminal Justice specialists. Specialized programs of this kind are part of an established tradition and pattern in psychiatry and already exist in about one-fourth of the residency centers. Almost all center directors (96 percent) favor expansion of these specialized programs and most of them favor a major expansion. Their most important need is for salaries for additional faculty. Student practice experience with offenders is not usually a problem for the psychiatric center since it does not have to depend heavily on outside agencies, as do the schools of clinical psychology and social work.

Several factors indicate that it might be feasible to expand clinical psychology and social work programs so as to produce additional diagnostic and treatment personnel for correctional institutions. Many correctional executives and the relevant professional schools consider clinical psychologists and social workers to be qualified for these positions. The schools report they are prepared to use additional funds to expand their training programs for professional practice with offenders. Further, correctional agencies report they are willing to provide fieldwork facilities for student training (internships), especially for social work.

However, several factors are unfavorable for expansion. Probably the most important of these is the lack of specialized corrections programs in clinical psychology and social work. This means that an enormous expansion of existing "generic" programs is required in order to produce even a small number of additional graduates for recruitment to correctional institutions.

An expansion of the required magnitude is probably unrealistic and the costs are apt to be prohibitive. Furthermore, a substantial minority of deans from clinical psychology and social work do not legitimate a correctional specialization in schools such as their own, though almost all other academic and professional executives approve of extensive correctional specializations in degree programs of clinical psychology and social work.

Clinical psychology is not likely to substantially expand its production of graduates for practice in corrections. Relatively few schools offer courses or internships for correctional practice and most graduates are not considered trained by their schools for practice in this field. Fewer schools report that they are prepared to use additional funds for correctional expansion than is the case in either psychiatry or social work.

Clinical psychology also reports two major problems that are not readily solved by funds: (1) many schools mentioned that good students were not available for corrrections programs; (2) most schools were hindered by a lack of suitable correctional agencies for student internships. This latter condition might be remedied through coordinated efforts of the schools, agencies, and American Psychological Association based on the internship standards of the Association.

Several factors are not conducive to social work expansion, even if additional funds are made available. Relatively few academic and professional executives considered social work to be the appropriate professional training for diagnostic and treatment personnel of correctional institutions. Also, social work schools report a basic problem with the lack of sufficient correctional agencies for field training of students and often attribute the manpower shortage of social workers in corrections to this factor. At the same time, the great majority of correctional agencies report they are willing to provide fieldwork facilities for social work students. This discrepancy is of basic importance since it is unlikely that the schools and agencies can effectively communicate, or coordinate their efforts, until social work establishes national standards that operationally define a suitable training agency. An initial step that would be helpful is for the profession to provide objective guidelines that would assist the correctional agency in organizing its training facilities and services. In view of the importance of field training in social work education, agency reform and school expansion for corrections are unlikely so long as a professional "model" of the training agency is not clearly articulated.

This analysis suggests that the professional schools will probably continue to provide only a small proportion of the qualified clinical personnel needed in correctional institutions. The only feasible remedy appears to be a major expansion of specialized programs for professional practice with offenders. Psychiatric residency centers offer the best hope for substantial expansion of such programs and graduates. However, it may be difficult for correctional institutions to compete with the opportunities provided for the psychiatric graduate by other agencies and especially by private practice.

The need to create additional institutional resources to supplement the efforts of the professional schools will be examined in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 4

Application of the Manpower Schema to Classification and General Counseling Staff

Classification and general counseling staff are one of the two major categories of personnel (the other is diagnostic and treatment staff) whose direct function is rehabilitation of the institutionalized adult or juvenile offender. The number of classification and general counseling staff (4,550), however, constitute the *smallest* category of staff except for diagnostic and treatment personnel in correctional institutions. It is apparent that the rehabilitative function is not supported by anywhere as near as generous a staff as is the custody function even in juvenile institutions. Custody staff comprise 66 percent of all correctional institution employees.[1]

Classification and general counseling staff perform the following kinds of work activities: conducting orientation meetings to acquaint offenders with institutional life; making recommendations for educational, vocational, and living assignments; preparing offenders' records for parole hearings; prerelease planning and counseling; assisting offenders in their contacts with community agencies (e.g., welfare and employment organizations); helping offenders with family and general problems of adjustment.[2]

This chapter will apply the manpower schema to classification and general counseling staff. The first section will report the number who are employed as well as the number needed. The second section will identify the educational standards that qualify personnel for classification and general counseling positions and discuss the availability of qualified personnel to fill these positions. The third section will analyze the feasibility of expanding the pool of personnel who are qualified for practice as classification and general counseling staff. A final section will consider three strategies for expanding this pool and the costs of implementing each strategy.

Extent of Manpower Shortages for Classification and General Counseling Personnel

Number Employed. At the end of 1965, approximately 4,550 classification and general counseling staff were employed in all correctional institution systems (excluding local jails) throughout the United States. Juvenile systems employed about 3,250 of these personnel, or more than four per institution. "Adult" systems employed 1,300, or an average of less than three classification and general counseling staff for each prison or other institution for adult offenders.

Official Vacancies. At the beginning of 1966, there were about 500 positions for classification and counseling staff that were budgeted but unfilled. These official vacancies constituted 11.1 percent of all such personnel employed in the work force at that time. This official vacancy rate of 11.1 percent may be regarded as the scope of the manpower shortage for classification and general counseling personnel *by the standard of official public policy*. The vacancy rate for "adult" systems (19.1 percent) was much higher than that for juvenile systems (8.0 percent).

---

[1] A similar ratio of treatment to custody staff in correctional institutions is indicated from figures reported by the Task Force on Corrections and provided by the National Survey of Corrections, Bureau of Prisons, and the Administration Office of the U.S. Courts. They report the following: custody, 62 percent; education and counseling, 9 percent; service (maintenance), 29 percent. It should be noted, however, that the Task Force data includes local jails. See President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections, op. cit.*, table 2, p. 51.

[2] Classification and general counseling staff were differentiated by the study from diagnostic and treatment staff. This latter group was designated for manpower purposes as including clinical personnel: clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, and social workers.

Classification and General Counseling Personnel Needed for the "Most Effective Operation" of Correctional Institutions. In the judgment of top correctional institution executives, approximately 5,500—or about 900 additional classification and general counseling personnel—were required for the most effective operation of their institutions. In terms of this executive standard, the shortage was 20.3 percent of the total classification and counseling work force employed at the time.

A similar increase of such personnel was anticipated by correctional executives for the following year. In their judgment, they would need about 6,300 classification and counseling staff by the beginning of 1967. This means an addition of more than 800 such staff over the amount needed for effective institutional operation the year before. Moreover it represents a total increase of about 1,750 classification and general counseling staff, or 38.7 percent more than the number actually employed a year earlier. The highest rate of shortage for classification and general counseling staff is 87.6 percent in "adult" institutions. The comparable shortage rate in juvenile institutions is 19.3 percent.

Table 31 summarizes the scope of manpower shortages for classification and general counseling personnel in the various correctional systems.

Chart X expresses the rates of manpower shortages for classification and general counseling personnel.

There is evidence that a severe manpower shortage exists for classification and general counseling personnel in correctional institutions, and that it has reached crisis proportions in "adult" institutions. Unless this shortage can be reduced, it will in all probability severely limit the effectiveness of rehabilitation service programs in correctional institutions.

TABLE 31.—*Estimated Number of Classification and General Counseling Personnel Employed and Needed in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67* [a]

Type of system	Employed end 1965	Standard of official public policy—needed beginning 1966	Standard of executive assessment: Needed beginning 1966	Standard of executive assessment: Needed beginning 1967
Institutions for juveniles [b]	3,256	3,515	3,515	3,885
Institutions for "adults" [c]	1,296	1,544	1,959	2,430
Total	4,552	5,059	5,474	6,315

[a] Full-time classification and general counseling staff for all 432 correctional institution systems in the United States, excluding local jails and workhouses. Based on data from 267 systems.

[b] Represents 370 systems with 740 institutional facilities designed exclusively for juveniles.

[c] Represents 62 systems with 502 institutional facilities designed primarily for adults.

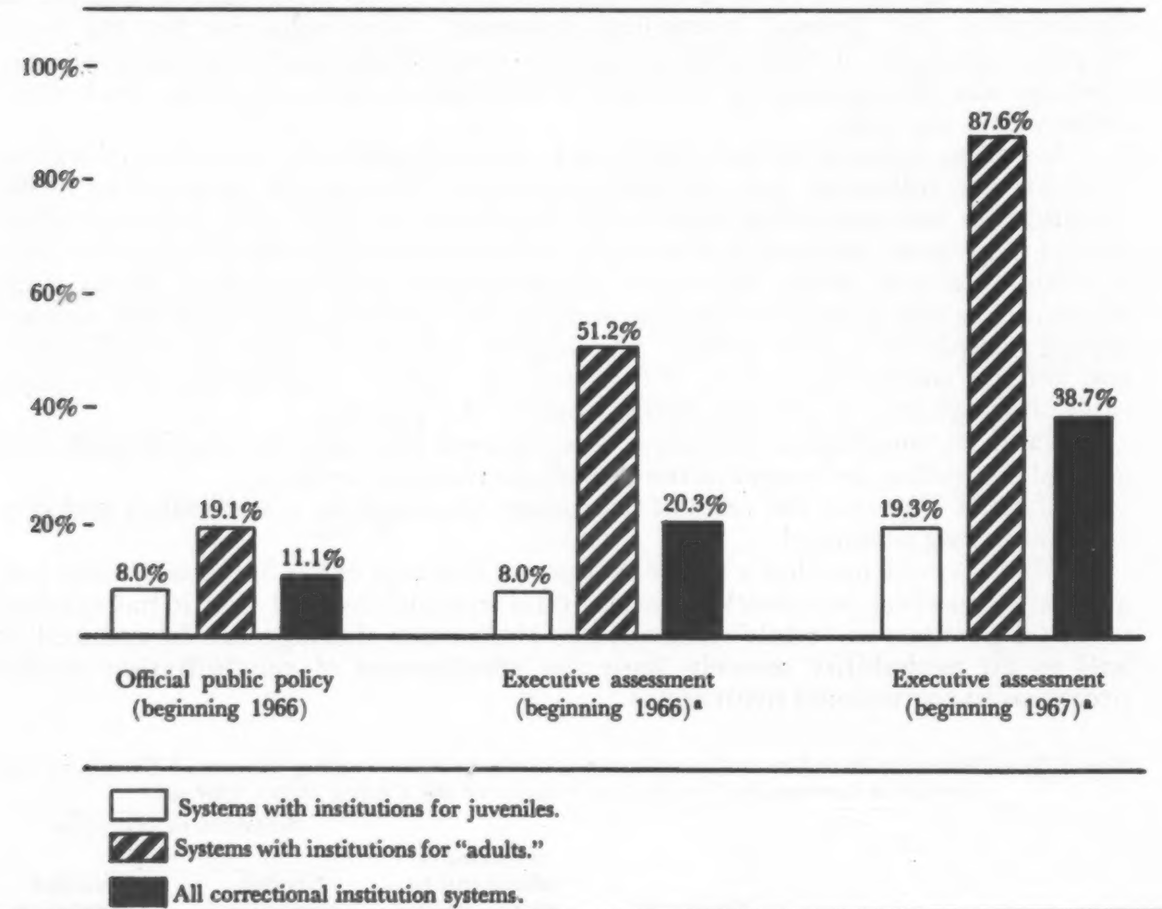
Availability of Qualified Personnel for Classification and General Counseling Positions in Correctional Institutions

Are there qualified personnel available who can be recruited so as to reduce the shortage of classification and general counseling staff? This section identifies the educational programs that qualify personnel for these positions and estimates the size of the manpower pool currently available for recruitment. Throughout the analysis, the primary source of reference for qualifying standards will be that of executive judgment.

Recommended Educational Standards for Classification and General Counseling Personnel. Social work is the formal training that executives of correctional institution systems advocate as qualification for classification and general counseling personnel. As is shown in table 32, social work is the degree area most frequently advocated by executives to qualify personnel for practice in juvenile institutions and in prisons and reformatories. Social work was the choice of about 40 percent of the correctional institution executives. The next most frequently advocated degree area was corrections (20 percent), followed by psychology—general (16 percent), psychology—clinical (13 percent), and sociology—general (10 percent). No other degree area was chosen by more than one or two executives.

Qualifications of Existing Classification and General Counseling Staff. Limited data are available on the educational background of classification and general counseling staff. Study findings from 32 large correctional systems indicate that these staff most typically held a college degree in sociology or psychology. About one out of six systems typically employed classification and general counseling staff with training in social work or corrections (see table 33).

CHART X.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Classification and General Counseling Personnel in Correctional Institution Systems of the United States, 1966–67*



[a] Percentages are based on the number of classification and general counseling staff needed for the most effective operation of the institutions compared with the number employed at the end of 1965.

A national study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates that about 8 percent of the social welfare personnel who provide services to adult offenders hold a master's degree in social work (see table 34). Classification and general counseling personnel employed in prisons and reformatories are apparently included in this personnel category.[3]

TABLE 32.—*Education Recommended by Correctional Institution Executives to Qualify Personnel for Classification and General Counseling Staff*

Work role	University area recommended [a]	Percent of executives [b]
Classification and general counseling personnel in institutions for juveniles	Social work	42.4
Classification and general counseling personnel in prisons and reformatories	Social work	35.1
Combined	Social work	38.8

[a] More executives advocated this university area for a degree than any other from among 11 choices.
[b] Percentages are based on responses of top executives of 93 major correctional institution systems and do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

TABLE 33.—*Typical Education of Classification and General Counseling Personnel in Correctional Institutions* [a]

Typical education	Percent of responding systems
High school or some college	18.8
Degree in sociology or psychology	28.1
Degree in corrections or social work	18.8
Other college degree	34.4
Total	100.1
Number of systems	(32)

[a] Data are based on descriptions by institutional systems concerning the most typical education of their classification and general counseling personnel engaged in inservice training during 1965.

---

[3] See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), pp. 119–124.

TABLE 34.—*Educational Achievement of Social Welfare Personnel Who Provide Services to Adult Offenders* [a]

Educational achievement	Percent of personnel
High school or some college	23
Bachelor's degree or some graduate work	57
Master's degree in social work	8
Other graduate degree	12
Total	100
Number of personnel	(5,254)

[a] Data are drawn from Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), table 18, p. 39.

The limited findings suggest that relatively few personnel who possess the formal qualifications advocated by correctional executives are being recruited to classification and general counseling staff.

Availability of Social Work Graduates for Classification and General Counseling Positions. To what extent are qualified graduates becoming available for recruitment to correctional institutions as classification and general counseling staff? This section will describe study findings on the number of graduates produced by schools of social work over the past 2 years and the rate of recruitment of these practitioners to correctional institutions.

UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS. Relatively few academic institutions offer an undergraduate degree program in social work. A recent listing shows 190 undergraduate departments of colleges and universities "offering courses with social welfare content." [4] Undergraduate courses are generally located in departments of sociology and sociology/anthropology. Only about a fourth (46) of the departments listed are described as social work, presocial work, social welfare, or social service. The diversity of undergraduate courses and programs makes it difficult to assess the number of students who graduate from a degree program in social work. The task is further complicated by the absence of clear criteria about what constitutes an undergraduate social work program.

> The wide variety of social welfare offerings as well as the variety of methods used by the 190 (undergraduate) member institutions in accounting for their student enrollment makes comparable statistical reporting very difficult.[5]

Graduate Programs. The master's degree in social work is widely acknowledged as that which would professionally qualify one for social work. At the time of this survey, there were 58 accredited schools of social work in the United States that offered the master's degree.[6] Fifty of these schools (8 percent) responded to the project mail questionnaire of approximately 10 pages. Questionnaire items were highly structured and precoded. Approximately two-thirds of the questionnaires were filled out by the dean or director; the rest were completed by respondents in other administrative or teaching positions of the school.

TABLE 35.—*Location of Responding Social Work Schools by Region*

Region	Number of schools	Return rate (percent)
New England	(4)	80
Middle Atlantic	(9)	75
East North Central	(10)	91
West North Central	(7)	100
South Atlantic	(7)	88
East South Central	(1)	50
West South Central	(5)	100
Mountain	(2)	100
Pacific	(5)	83
Total	(50)	86

---

[4] See Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966* (New York: 1967), table 130, pp. 15–18.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

[6] See Council on Social Work Education, *Graduate Professional Schools of Social Work in Canada and the U.S.A.* (New York: January 1965). Brandeis was not included because it offered only the doctoral degree at the time of study. Puerto Rico was not included because it could not be assigned to one of the 50 States and parallel data for manpower needs in Puerto Rican correctional institutions were not available.

The 50 graduate schools of social work from which data were drawn for this report are located in 31 States and the District of Columbia. Their regional distribution is shown in table 35.

The graduate school of social work is located at a university and is usually an autonomous professional school. The master of social work program requires two academic years of full-time training. Professional accreditation of the school is carried out through the Council on Social Work Education. Classroom courses and field experience are integral parts of the program.[7]

SIZE OF THE M.S.W. MANPOWER POOL FOR CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS. The total number of master's degree graduates from all schools of social work in the United States for the academic year 1965–66 was 3,653. No school awarded more than 200 degrees, and the mean was 62.[8] The total number of social work graduates may be regarded as the *maximum potential manpower pool* available during the year for recruitment to all positions for which the social work degree is considered qualification. Of the 3,653 social work graduates, the project estimates that only about 100, or 2.7 percent, are likely to be recruited to correctional institutions and only 50, or 1.4 percent, are likely to be recruited to positions as classification and general counseling staff. The estimate of only 50 social work graduates as the most likely number to be recruited as classification and counseling staff was based on the following analysis.

Only a small fraction of the total number of social work graduates is available for recruitment to correctional institutions. The most important factor that reduces their availability is the competition for social work graduates from other practice fields and programs, such as public assistance, child welfare, and medical social work.[9] The National Commission for Social Work Careers estimates that 130,000 persons were employed in all social service positions in the United States as of 1967.[10]

A second factor that is apt to reduce the social work manpower pool for correctional institutions is school evaluation. Deans of social work schools considered about one-third, or 1,200 of their master's degree graduates in 1965–66 as not trained for practice in correctional settings.[11] The likelihood is that many social work graduates will be encouraged to seek careers in practice fields other than corrections.[12]

The specialization interests and experience of students is a third factor that substantially reduces the pool of social work graduates available for correctional institutions. An estimated total of 750 social work graduates in 1965–66 completed a year of field experience in a correctional agency during their 2 years of social work training.[13]

The following five schools of social work had the largest number of students placed in correctional field agencies as of November 1, 1965: University of Michigan, University of California (Berkeley), University of Washington, University of Wisconsin (Milwaukee), and Tulane University. These five schools had a total of

---

[7] See app. F for further description of social work schools in the sample and population.

[8] See *Statistics on Social Work Education, op. cit.*, table 206, p. 24, (excluding Puerto Rico). Project findings are virtually identical; they show a mean of 60 graduates per school from the schools that responded to our survey.

[9] See *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960, op. cit.*, p. 39.

[10] See National Commission for Social Work Careers of the National Association of Social Workers, *Manpower—A Community Responsibility* (New York: 1968), p. 58.

[11] This figure is based on school responses to the following questionnaire item: "Approximately what proportion of these students (awarded a masters' degree through your school this academic year) are trained so they can practice in correctional settings?"

[12] Disqualification from corrections by school evaluation may relate to the fact that about 60 percent of social work students are women. See Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966, op. cit.*, table 205, p. 23.

[13] This figure is based on school responses regarding the number of first and second year master's degree students with fieldwork placements in probation/parole agencies, correctional institutions, and "other correctional agencies."

Data from the Council on Social Work Education indicate a somewhat smaller figure of approximately 600 master's degree students in correctional field placements during the academic year 1965–66 among 60 schools. This figure is derived as follows: 547 students already in correctional field placements as of November 1965, plus approximately 60 students from the pool of those in combined fields and those not yet assigned (in proportion to the existing distribution of 7.5 percent in correctional field placements). See their *Statistics on Social Work Education 1965* (New York: 1966), table 255, p. 28.

143, or 12.7 percent, of their full-time master's degree students in correctional field placements.[14]

By contrast, five of the largest graduate schools of social work had only 51, or 3.9 percent, of their full-time master's degree students located in correctional agencies for field instruction as of November 1, 1965. These schools are as follows: Columbia University, University of Chicago, New York University, Fordham University, and Florida State University.[15]

The 750 social work graduates with fieldwork experience in corrections may be regarded as the yearly manpower pool with a likely potential for recruitment to correctional institutions. This pool of 1965–66 graduates with *likely recruitment potential,* however, must be further reduced for two reasons. First, almost all of these graduates have also completed a year of field experience in agencies other than corrections. Therefore, it is as likely that they will pursue their specialization interests and experience in other fields as that they will do so in corrections. The graduate pool with high potential for recruitment to corrections is thus halved to 375.

A further reduction occurs because correctional institutions must compete with other correctional agencies for the limited pool of 375 annual social work graduates (in 1965–66) who are likely to pursue their specialization into the correctional field. It is estimated that about one-fourth of the social work graduates recruited to corrections take positions in correctional institutions. About two-thirds take jobs in probation and parole agencies. The remainder go into various other programs, such as work with street gangs and agencies such as the National Council on Crime and Delinquency and the John Howard Association.

The distribution of correctional personnel provides a basis for estimating the proportion of social work graduates likely to be recuited into correctional institutions rather than other correctional agencies. Table 36 shows the approximate number of persons in the types of agencies and positions included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey of social welfare manpower in 1960.

According to this distribution, correctional institutions throughout the country could expect to recruit approximately 100 new social workers in 1965–66 from the pool of 375 graduates likely to go into the field of corrections. The pool is even further reduced because the 100 graduates must also be available to fill positions as diagnostic and treatment personnel in corrections institutions—for which they also qualify. The best estimate is that about half of these 100 social work graduates fill positions as diagnostic and treatment staff, and the other half as classification and general counseling staff. Thus, correctional institutions could expect to recruit about 50 M.S.W. graduates to classification and general counseling positions from the entire graduating class of 1965–66.

This pool of approximately 50 social work graduates is sufficient to fill about one-tenth of the 500 official vacancies for classification and general counseling personnel at the beginning of 1966, and about one-twentieth of the 925 additional positions that executives consider necessary for the most effective functioning of their institutions.

TABLE 36.—*Estimated Distribution of Personnel Employed in Correctional Agencies and Positions Classifiable as Social Work,*[a] *end of 1965*

	Number	Percent
Correctional institutions	[b] 9,500	24.3
Probation and parole	[c] 26,633	68.1
Other correctional agency or position	[d] 3,000	7.7
Total	39,133	100.1

[a] See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), pp. 119–124. Departures from the BLS classification are as noted.

[b] This is probably a conservative figure. It is based on the following estimates for staff of all 1,242 correctional institution facilities in the United States, excluding personnel in local jails: (1) approximately 4,550 classification and general counseling staff; (2) approximately 2,800 of the diagnostic and treatment staff for clinical services; (3) approximately 2,150 of the superintendents, wardens, research workers, social service and cottage life supervisors, and other administrative positions designated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

[c] Figures are based on project data for probation/parole officers, supervisors, administrators, and training officers. See Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy* (Washngton, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968), vol. 1, tables 5, 6, 7, and 8.

[d] This is a tentative figure and is not supported by concrete data.

---

[14] Data are drawn from Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1965, op. cit.,* table 255, p. 28.

[15] *Ibid.*

The pool of M.S.W. graduates available for all fields increased by about 250 from the academic year 1965–66 to 1966–67. The total pool of M.S.W. graduates for 1966–67 was approximately, 3,900. Of these, about 825 graduates had specialized experience in the field of corrections, and approximately 110–120 of them are likely to be recruited to correctional institutions. About half of these, or 60 social work graduates, could be expected to be recruited to positions as classification and general counseling staff.[16]

This pool of about 60 social work graduates is enough to fill about 3 percent of the 1,775 additional positions needed for the "most effective operation" of correctional institutions in 1967, according to the assessments of top executives.

Chart XI summarizes project findings on the number of social work graduates available in relation to the need for classification and general counseling staff during 1966 and 1967.

It is apparent that the number of social work graduates available for recruitment as classification and general counseling staff is far less than the manpower needed for these positions. The following section will consider the feasibility of expanding social work programs and the pool of M.S.W. graduates.

Feasibility of Expanding the Pool of Social Work Graduates for Classification and General Counseling Positions in Correctional Institutions

The feasibility of expanding social work programs to increase substantially the number of graduates available for positions as classification and general counseling staff in correctional institutions depends first on conditions within the schools. Do the social work schools concur that the M.S.W. is the most appropriate educational standard for classification and general counseling personnel? Are they prepared to expand their social work programs? Do the educational resources exist and can they be mobilized for major expansion?

Feasibility of social work expansion also depends on outside support from the academic and professional community. Is the M.S.W. generally endorsed as an educational standard for classification and general counseling personnel? Do academic and professional groups legitimate specialized social work training for this field? Expansion is unlikely to occur unless there is a reasonable consensus on these points.

The discussion that follows summarizes certain relevant sections that have already appeared in chapter 3.[17]

Conditions Within Graduate Schools of Social Work

CONCURRENCE OF SCHOOLS AND CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS ON EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS. Expanding the pool of social work graduates for correctional institutions depends in part on whether or not the schools concur with correctional executives that social work training is the appropriate qualification

CHART XI.—*Manpower Needs for Classification and General Counseling Staff During 1966–67 and the Availability of Qualified Personnel for Recruitment*

Classification and general counseling staff	Additional manpower needed [b]	Qualified personnel available [a]		
		Maximum pool [c]	Likely pool [d]	Expected recruitment [e]
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	500	3,650	750	50
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	925	3,650	750	50
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	1,775	3,900	825	60

[a] Qualified by the criterion of executive judgment. Social work was the university area strongly advocated for a degree by executives of correctional institution systems in order to qualify personnel for classification and general counseling positions. See table 32 above.

[b] The number needed in addition to those employed in 432 correctional institution systems at the end of 1965. Numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 31 above.

[c] The total number of master's degree graduates from the U.S. schools of social work during the relevant academic year.

[d] The total of social work graduates who had completed a year of specialized field experience in a correctional agency.

[e] The total number of social work graduates with correctional field experience who were apt to be recruited to positions as classification and general counseling staff in correctional institutions rather than another practice field, another type of correctional agency, or to positions as diagnostic or treatment staff in correctional institutions.

---

[16] For a more detailed analysis of the manpower pool of M.S.W. graduates available for recruitment to corrections in 1966–67 see Piven and Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy, op. cit.*, vol. 1, ch. 3.

[17] It will be recalled that ch. 3 considered the feasibility of expanding the pool of social work graduates for diagnostic and treatment staff in correctional institutions.

for classification and general counseling staff. Expansion is unlikely if there is no agreement on educational standards for recruitment between those who hire and those who train.

As shown in table 37, social work deans "strongly advocate" social work training for classification and general counseling staff of correctional institutions. About the same proportion advocate social work when the work roles are separated between classification staff and general counseling staff, and when the types of institutions are separated between juvenile and "adult." [18]

A majority of social work deans advocate an M.S.W. as the standard for classification personnel and for general counseling personnel. There is strong endorsement by almost three-fifths of the deans that social work training is the appropriate educational standard for this personnel group.

LEGITIMACY OF SPECIALIZED M.S.W. PROGRAMS IN CORRECTIONS. Most social work deans (61.0 percent) approve of M.S.W. programs with a "concentration" (12 or more credit hours) in corrections. A substantial minority of deans (39 percent) disapprove of such programs at the university or approved of them only as special noncredit programs (see table 24). These findings indicate that most social work deans recognize that the way in which their schools will produce qualified graduates for correctional positions is through specialized M.S.W. programs in corrections.

READINESS OF SOCIAL WORK SCHOOLS TO EXPAND STUDENT TRAINING FOR WORK WITH OFFENDERS. Graduate schools of social work are prepared to expand their programs and graduates for work with offenders if additional training resources are made available to them. Almost all social work schools (97.9 percent) report that they are ready for expansion *if additional funds are made available* (see table 25).

TRAINING RESOURCES NEEDED BY SOCIAL WORK SCHOOLS FOR EXPANDED PROGRAMS IN CORRECTIONS. About three-fifths of the social work schools (61 percent) report that for the academic year 1965–66, their classroom and field courses in corrections were hindered by lack of funds. Virtually all schools report that their correctional programs were hindered by faculty overload and limited space. In about half the schools, good faculty for correctional courses were in short supply, as were suitable agencies for student field training. There is apparently no shortage of high quality social work students available for training in corrections (see table 26).

Conditions Within the University and Professional Complex. The extent to which social work schools are able to expand educational programs for corrections depends in part on the support or opposition of a number of strategic groups within the university complex. Major expansion of social work programs is not likely to occur, even if financial subsidies are made available by the foundations or the government, unless those programs are acceptable to key groups in the university and professional communities.

SOCIAL WORK TRAINING FOR CLASSIFICATION AND GENERAL COUNSELING STAFF—CONSENSUS AND DIVERGENCE ON STANDARDS. Do key academic and professional groups endorse social work training as the appropriate educational standard for classification and general counseling staff?

As table 38 shows, relatively few of the executives surveyed advocate social work as the appropriate training for classification personnel or general counseling

TABLE 37.—*Education Recommended by Social Work Deans to Qualify Personnel for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions*

Work role	University area recommended [a]	Percent of deans [b]
Classification and assignment personnel (institutions for juveniles)	Social work	57.1
Classification and assignment personnel (prisons and reformatories)	Social work	53.6
General counseling personnel (prisons and reformatories).	Social work	56.3

[a] University area "strongly advocated" for a degree from among 11 choices.
[b] Based on responses of deans from 50 social work schools. Percentages do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

---

[18] For correctional institution executives, the work roles were combined into "classification and general counseling" staff in each of the two types of institutions. The questionnaire items are considered comparable for purposes of this analysis.

TABLE 38.—*Extent to Which Social Work and Clinical Psychology are Recommended to Qualify Personnel for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions* [a]

Source of standard	Number of respondents	Recommended for classification and assignment [a]		Recommended for general counseling [b]	
		Social work	Clinical psychology	Social work	Clinical psychology
		Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
Academic executives:					
College presidents and department chairmen	(239)	14.6	12.5	24.9	26.5
Directors—clinical psychology	(23)	9.1	52.3	34.3	60.9
Directors—psychiatric residency	(126)	6.3	26.9	*	*
Directors—Crime and Delinquency Centers	(20)	18.0	5.1	21.5	31.6
Criminal justice executives (other than executives of correctional institution systems):					
Probation/parole systems	(100)	30.0	9.6	52.8	7.8
Law enforcement systems [c]	(38)	13.8	29.1	13.8	29.1

[a] Percentage of executives who "strongly advocate" each university area for a degree from among 11 choices. Percentages are based on responses for both juvenile institutions and prisons and reformatories.

[b] Percentage of executives who "strongly advocate" each university area for a degree from among 11 choices. Percentages are based on responses for prisons and reformatories.

[c] The questionnaire item for this population combined "classification and general counseling" personnel.

* Item omitted for this population.

personnel. Clinical psychology is advocated more frequently than social work by directors of psychiatric residency centers, law enforcement executives, and directors of the clinical psychology programs. Social work receives substantial support only from probation/parole executives. In fact, no single discipline is generally endorsed as suitable education for these work roles.

The findings indicate that a policy to expand schools of social work for the purpose of training additional classification and general counseling personnel is unlikely to receive major support. Both the academic and professional community are divided as to the most appropriate university program to train these personnel, though more of them advocate clinical psychology than any other discipline. At the university, only the deans of schools of social work endorse social work as the most suitable educational program for this personnel group. It is doubtful that plans for expansion of schools of social work can be implemented without greatly increased support from academic and professional executives. However, social work expansion may not be actively opposed since no other discipline generates the support that is necessary in order to claim a training mandate. Clinical psychology is strongly supported only by its own directors and is endorsed by only a few employing executives. As shown previously, those in a position to hire classification and general counseling staff endorse social work training for these work roles (see table 32).

Is there a consensus among standard setting organizations concerning suitable training for classification and general counseling personnel? The question is a difficult one to answer because classification and general counseling staff, as defined here, are often treated as a residual category of semispecialists. The literature often identifies the work roles of clinical and educational specialists. In addition, however, occasional references are made to other staff who perform functions in the reception or classification or parole "process," or who engage in counseling or casework "activities." Consequently, the educational qualifications for classification and general counseling staff are seldom specified in the literature.

The Special Task Force on Correctional Standards recommends that "a staff member, sometimes called an institutional parole officer, should serve in a liaison capacity between the classification department of the institution and the paroling authority." [19] This kind of activity has been defined by the project as one of the functions of classification and general counseling staff. The Special Task Force does not specifically recommend any particular educational qualifications for the "institutional parole officer." It does, however, consider "a master's degree from an accredited school of social work or comparable study in corrections, criminology, psychology, sociology, or a related field of social science" as the preferred qualification for a parole officer in the community.[20]

---

[19] National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States: A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *op. cit.*, p. 272.

The Special Task Force also recommends that "a caseworker assigned exclusively to the reception process" have a maximum workload of 30 cases a month.[21] They also state "in general there should be 1 counselor for every 150 inmates." [22] The Task Force separates "clinical" personnel from the caseworker and the counselor. Both of these latter work roles appear to belong to this project's category: classification and general counseling staff. No specific educational qualifications are defined by the Task Force for either the institutional caseworker or counselor.

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice reports on the desired qualifications for "case manager" in correctional institutions and probation/parole agencies.[23] The President's Commission separates the clinician and the teacher, who are "specialists," from the case manager. The shortage of case managers is acute, according to the Commission, in that 4,700 are needed in correctional institutions (excluding jails) and only 2,685 were employed in 1965.[24] A number of the functions assigned to the case manager by the President's Commission are apparently those of classification and general counseling staff, as defined by this project. The Commission refers, for example, to the following skills of the case manager: investigative and diagnostic capacity, ability to work with communities and institutions, and effective counseling and supervision. The Commission recommends that qualifications for the case manager take account of the manpower shortage as follows:

> The desirable level of education for a fully qualified case manager, it is generally agreed by authorities in corrections, is graduate work at least to the master's degree level. To achieve that level immediately for all of the large number of personnel required is clearly impractical. Fully trained caseworkers must be utilized in teams with volunteers, subprofessional aides, and specialists in tasks such as obtaining employment and providing remedial education.
>
> College graduates at the bachelor's degree level provide a rich source of recruitment for some of these positions. Once attracted to corrections, they can be given training and subsequently provided an opportunity to obtain graduate education.[25]

In summary, both those who hire (correctional institution executives) and those who train (schools of social work) endorse social work as the preferred training for classification and general counseling personnel. Other academic and professional groups are divided on the educational standard for classification and general counseling personnel but tend toward clinical psychology. A national policy designed to increase the number of qualified classification and general counseling personnel through expansion of graduate social work programs is, therefore, likely to achieve only limited success. However, success appears somewhat more likely considering that all key academic groups strongly legitimate specialized programs for corrections at graduate schools of social work. In adddition, correctional agencies and other important groups indicate their cooperation with school programs in corrections. These findings are summarized in the following section.

LEGITIMACY OF SPECIALIZED M.S.W. PROGRAMS IN CORRECTIONS. The M.S.W. program with a specialization in corrections received more widespread academic approval (86.6 percent, or 519 academic respondents) than did any of five other proposed specialization programs in Criminal Justice. LL.B. (J.D.) programs with a concentration in criminal law were approved by 84.0 percent (or 494) of the same academic respondents. Undergraduate programs with a concentration in police science were approved by 52.5 percent (or 321). A national policy to expand specialized correctional programs in schools of social work would receive strong support from virtually all university presidents, department chairmen, and deans of professional schools (see table 28).

---

[20] *Ibid.*, p. 271.

[21] *Ibid.*, p. 275.

[22] *Ibid.*

[23] The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections, op. cit.*, p. 79.

[24] *Ibid.*, table 5, p. 96.

[25] *Ibid.*, p. 97.

ACTIVE SUPPORT OF M.S.W. PROGRAMS IN CORRECTIONS. Virtually all correctional agencies are willing to provide fieldwork facilities for training of social work students. Social work ranked far higher in this regard than did any other school or department of the university (see table 29).

In addition, the actual experience of social work schools shows that they were usually aided in their correctional training programs by university faculty and administration, the Council on Social Work Education, and correctional agencies in the community.

The findings indicate that social work schools are probably able to expand substantially their programs and pool of graduates for corrections provided that (1) additional funds are made available for this purpose, and (2) that appropriate priorities are established within the schools to train students for work with offenders. The next section will discuss the amount of money needed for expansion. It will also consider the policy changes that would be required for social work to fulfill its mandate to educate a reasonable number of graduates for practice in correctional institutions.

Strategies and Costs Required to Expand the Pool of Social Work Graduates for Classification and General Counseling Positions in Correctional Institutions

SCHOOL COSTS PER M.S.W. GRADUATE. The average cost of producing an M.S.W. graduate is estimated at $14,500.[26] The school cost is approximately $10,000, exclusive of student scholarships.[27] The average scholarship cost per social work student is approximately $4,500 over the 2-year period of the M.S.W. program.[28] This latter estimate is based on data reported to the project by schools of social work.[29]

This section will appraise three strategies designed to increase the pool of social work graduates for recruitment to positions as classification and counseling personnel in correctional institutions. The cost of training the additional graduates varies with the approach selected for expansion.

The first strategy entails a general expansion of social work education to meet the manpower needs of all its practice fields. It assumes that correctional institutions will share in this expansion by recruiting graduates to positions as classification and general counseling staff at about the same rate as they do now. It would cost a minimum of $529 million to implement this strategy.

The second strategy is designed to selectively expand social work programs that produce professional specialists for the field of corrections. It assumes that graduates from these specialized programs are more likely to be recruited to positions as classification and general counseling staff than are graduates from "generic" programs. It would cost a minimum of $7 million to produce a sufficient number of correctional specialists equivalent to the manpower need for classification and general counseling personnel in correctional institutions.

The third strategy involves a change in school policy and program priorities, with schools expanding at their current rate. It assumes that correctional institutions will receive their "fair share" of social work graduates in proportion to other practice fields served by the profession. No additional funds are involved beyond the costs of current school expansion.

---

[26] This figure includes the budget of the social work school and scholarships to students. It does not include costs borne by the university—which are at least partially offset by tuition fees.

It is quite possible that the average cost per student is considerably reduced by the greater "efficiency" of large schools and established schools. This latter factor is apt to be offset, however, by a higher proportion of senior faculty with higher salaries.

Earlier figures from the NIMH study showed that as of 1960–61 the yearly cost of training a psychiatric social worker was $5,384, or $10,768 for the 2-year M.S.W. See Training Branch, NIMH, *Survey of Funding and Expenditures for Training of Mental Health Personnel, 1960–61* (Washington, D.C.: January 1963), table 3, p. 5.

[27] The Council on Social Work Education budgetary estimate for new schools is $175,290 to $200,540 for a graduating class of 20 students (20 first-year students and 20 second-year students). These figures do not include capital outlays and other expenses of the university. They are considered to be conservative estimates and are currently under review by the Council. See their *Budgetary Estimate for New Schools* (mimeographed, Aug. 10, 1967) and private communication from Arnulf M. Pins, Executive Director of the Council.

[28] The proportion of full-time M.S.W. students who received some financial grant as of Nov. 1, 1966 was 86.5 percent. See Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education—1966, op. cit.*, tables 255 and 256, pp. 30 and 31.

[29] The proportion of M.S.W. students who received scholarship aid worth at least $1,000 for the academic year 1965–66 was 73.4 percent (based on data reported by 47 schools); and the proportion who received scholarship aid worth at least $3,600 for the same period was 21.7 percent (based on data reported by 43 schools).

STRATEGY 1—EXPANDING THE GENERAL POOL OF M.S.W. GRADUATES. The minimal manpower needs of correctional institutions for classification and general counseling staff require an additional 500 members. This figure represents the number of official vacancies, or unfilled budgeted positions, for these personnel. Assuming that the rate of recruitment remains stable, then about one M.S.W. graduate in 73 (1.4 percent) can be expected to take a job in correctional institution systems as classification and general counseling staff. Therefore, in order to recruit the minimal professional staff needed to fill *official vacancies* in classification and general counseling positions, it would be necessary to train 36,500 additional social workers. The cost of producing this additional pool of 36,500 graduates is *approximately $529 million.* An expansion of this magnitude would provide 36,000 additional social workers for other work roles and service fields.

At the current rate of recruitment, it would be necessary to train 129,575 additional social work graduates in order to produce the 1,775 classification and general counseling staff members required for correctional institutions to function *"most effectively"* at the beginning of 1967. The cost of training this additional pool of graduates is *almost $2 billion.* This expansion would provide about 128,000 additional social workers for other work roles and service fields.[30]

Chart XII shows the number and cost of additional social work graduates needed to fill classification and general counseling positions in correctional institutions. *These cost estimates assume that the current rate of graduate recruitment to these positions remains stable.*

STRATEGY 2—EXPANDING THE POOL OF M.S.W. SPECIALISTS FOR CLASSIFICATION AND GENERAL COUNSELING POSITIONS IN CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS. A second strategy would expand the number of social workers on a relatively small scale but would greatly increase their rate of recruitment to correctional institutions. This can be accomplished if the schools institute or expand special programs designed to train additional social work students for practice with offenders. A higher proportion of graduates from these specialized programs could be expected to select jobs in correctional institutions as classification and general counseling staff.

If social work schools were to adopt this policy, the cost of producing an added pool of graduate specialists to fill *minimal manpower needs* (official vacancies) for classification and general counseling staff would be *approximately $7 million.* This figure assumes perfect success in recruiting every additional graduate to these positions.

The cost of producing a sufficient number of social work specialists for correctional institutions to function "most effectively" is about *$26 million.* This figure is based on the 1,775 additional classification and general counseling staff that correctional executives report they need for the "most effective operation" of their institutions.

Chart XIII shows the number and cost of additional social work specialists required to fill manpower needs for classification and general counseling staff in

CHART XII.—*Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions With an Additional Pool of Social Work Graduates, Assuming Current Rate of Recruitment*

Classification and general counseling staff	Additional manpower needed [a]	Additional M.S.W. graduates needed [b]	Training cost [c] in millions of dollars
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	500	36,500	529.3
Executive assessment, beginning 1966 [d]	925	67,525	979.1
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	1,775	129,575	1,878.8

[a] The number needed in addition to those employed in 432 correctional institution systems at the end of 1965. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 31 above.

[b] The proportion of M.S.W. graduates recruited to classification and general counseling positions is approximately 1.4 percent (1 out of 73).

[c] The cost of producing an additional graduate is approximately $14,500.

[d] The executive assessments are based on the manpower need reported by top correctional executives for the "most effective operation" of their institutions beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

---

[30] This figure is apparently not unrealistic with respect to the manpower needs claimed for social work. "For programs in which agencies in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare are directly concerned, 100,000 more social workers *with full professional education* will be needed by 1970." *Manpower—A Community Responsibility, op. cit.,* p. 57. (Italic in original.)

correctional institutions. *These cost estimates assume that every additional social work graduate will be recruited to classification and general counseling positions in correctional institutions other than local jails.*

STRATEGY 3—A "FAIR SHARE" OF M.S.W. GRADUATES FOR CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS. A third strategy is aimed at assuring that social work produces its "fair share" of M.S.W. graduates for correctional institutions. This policy assumes that other practice fields served by social work have equally legitimate—but not greater—claims on the limited pool of social work graduates and that the profession and its clientele suffer from overly successful training and recruitment to one practice field at the expense of the others.

What constitutes a fair share of social work graduates warranted by a given practice field? There are several objective means of determining it. The simplest way is to calculate the proportion of the total social welfare labor force employed by a particular field. Using this method, correctional institutions deserve about 7.3 percent of all M.S.W. graduates: there were 130,000 persons employed in social service positions in the United States in 1967 according to the National Commission for Social Work Careers.[31] As shown earlier, in 1965 there were about 9,500 personnel employed in correctional institutions in positions classifiable as social work (see table 36).

The findings in table 39 indicate that a fair share of social work graduates for corrections as a whole (including probation and parole and other correctional agencies and positions) would be 30.1 percent. Psychiatric social work would warrant 4.5 percent as its fair share because as of 1960, 5,171 persons were employed in this field out of 115,799 in the social welfare labor force.[32] The fair share of M.S.W. graduates warranted by each practice field in proportion to its share of the social welfare labor force is shown in table 39. The maldistribution created by school training patterns is evidenced by the location of fieldwork placements.

Three practice fields served by social work have less than their fair share of students in fieldwork training: corrections, public assistance, and group services. Corrections and public assistance each have about one-fourth of their fair share of social work students in fieldwork training. Five practice fields have more than a fair share of social work students in field training. The psychiatric, medical, and education fields each have over three times as many students in fieldwork as are called for by their share of the social welfare labor force.

A second objective procedure for determining fair share is based on the proportion of all social welfare vacancies in a particular field. To justify the 25 percent fieldwork placements in psychiatric social work, for example, 25 percent of all unfilled budgeted positions in social welfare would have to be in this field. At the end of 1965, corrections had approximately 3,400 unfilled budgeted vacancies in social work positions (or 8.8 percent of the number actually employed). Psychiatric social work would require about 11,900 official vacancies in order to deserve the number of field placements it now has as compared with those in corrections.[33]

CHART XIII.—*Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions With an Additional Pool of Social Work Graduates, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Success* [a]

Classification and general counseling staff	Additional manpower needed [b]	Training costs for additional M.S.W. graduates [c] in millions of dollars
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	500	7.3
Executive assessment, beginning 1966 [d]	925	13.4
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	1,775	25.7

[a] Assuming every additional social work graduate is recruited to classification and general counseling positions in correctional institutions (other than jails and workhouses).

[b] The number needed in addition to the number employed. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See table 31 above.

[c] The cost of producing an additional graduate is estimated at $14,500.

[d] The executive assessments are based on the manpower need reported by correctional executives for the "most effective operation" of their institutions beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

---

[31] See National Commission for Social Work Careers of the National Association of Social Workers, *Manpower—A Community Responsibility, op. cit.*, p. 58.

[32] See Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960, op. cit.*, p. 39.

[33] Psychiatric social work has almost 3½ times the number of fieldwork placements assigned to corrections.

TABLE 39.—*Distribution of Social Work Students in Field Instruction and Distribution of Social Welfare Labor Force by Practice Fields*

	Percentage of M.S.W. students in fieldwork [a]	Percentage of social welfare labor force in practice field [b]
Fields assigned more than fair share of students.[c]		
Psychiatric	25.0	4.5
Family	12.0	7.4
Medical	9.2	3.0
Community planning services	6.8	6.6
Education	6.5	2.0
Fields assigned less than fair share of students:		
Public assistance	7.7	30.4
Corrections	7.5	[d]30.1
Group services	7.5	9.4
Undetermined:		
Child welfare	15.0	[e]
Other	2.7	[f]

[a] All figures are from Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966* (New York: 1967), table 255, p. 30. These figures were adjusted to prorate students assigned to combined fields (539) and those not yet assigned as of Nov. 1, 1966 (565) and to exclude those not to be in field instruction (45). The total number of full-time master's students on which fieldwork percentages were based is, therefore, 8,186 as of Nov. 1, 1966.

[b] All figures except those for corrections are from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), table 18, p. 39. Total social welfare manpower reported by the survey was 115,799.

[c] Full-time master's degree students. Practice field terms follow those used by the Council on Social Work Education.

[d] Data are based on an estimated total of 39,133 social work positions in corrections at the end of 1965 (see table 36 above) and 130,000 social service positions reported for 1967 by the National Council on Social Work Careers [see National Commission for Social Work Careers of the National Association of Social Workers, *Manpower—A Community Responsibility* (New York: 1968), p. 58].

[e] The BLS survey reports child welfare workers in categories that do not appear comparable to those used by CSWE for fieldwork students.

[f] The BLS survey also included the following programs (in addition to child welfare work and services to adult offenders): rehabilitation services, services to aged in institutions, teaching social work, and recreation programs.

This is more than twice the number of psychiatric social workers actually employed in 1960 and is, therefore, a highly improbable number of vacancies.[34]

A third procedure is also based on comparative vacancies, but it applies a professional standard to determine manpower needs for each field. By this criterion, correctional institutions had over 1,000 vacancies for social workers in juvenile and adult institutions (excluding local jails) during 1966.[35] For psychiatric social work to warrant the number of field placements it now has as compared with correctional institutions it would require about 13,000 vacancies by professional standards.[36] This is a highly improbable number of vacancies since this is about 2½ times the number of psychiatric social workers (or 5,171) actually employed in 1960.

A fourth procedure for determining fair share takes into account the overall need of each particular field for professional manpower. Accordingly, social work education would give priority to practice fields under its mandate that now have less than their fair share of trained social workers. Thus, correctional institutions would have high priority because they have less than the national average of M.S.W.s for all fields (17 percent). Psychiatric social work would have the lowest priority because it has by far the greatest proportion of M.S.W.s (72 percent). Nonetheless, social work education assigns this latter field the highest priority of training need.

As indicated in table 40, school training patterns tend to create and reinforce the maldistribution of professional recruitment into the various practice fields. Almost half the social work students are assigned to field instruction in the three practice fields that have the least need of additional trained manpower. Training patterns of social work education, such as those shown here, are not consonant with assumptions of equal legitimacy for the various practice fields under professional mandate.

---

[34] See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *op. cit.*, table 18, p. 39.

[35] See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States," *op. cit.*, p. 240, based upon standards of the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards.

[36] Psychiatric social work has about 13 times the fieldwork placements of correctional institutions. Calculated from table 39 as follows: the percentage of M.S.W. students with placements in corrections as a whole is 7.5 percent. It is estimated that correctional institutions have about one-fourth of these or 1.9 percent. Psychiatric social work with 25 percent has 13 times the number of field placements.

TABLE 40.—*School Training Patterns in Relation to Professional Needs of Social Welfare Practice Fields*

M.S.W.s in social work positions [a]	Need [b]		School assignments [c]	
	Percent M.S.W.s	Rank	Percent students	Rank
Fields with lower than average or average percentage:				
Public assistance	3.0	1	7.7	4
Corrections	8.5	2	7.5	5.5
Group services	9.0	3	7.5	5.5
Community planning services	17.0	4	6.8	7
Fields with higher than average percentage:				
Education	30.0	5	6.5	8
Family	34.0	6	12.0	2
Medical	53.0	7	9.2	3
Psychiatric	72.0	8	25.0	1
Undetermined: Child welfare [d]	—	—	15.0	—

[a] In 1960, 17 percent of all social welfare positions were filled by M.S.W.s (the figure is 18 percent if recreation programs are excluded). See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), table 18, p. 39.

[b] Highest priority of need is in practice fields with lowest proportion of M.S.W.s in social welfare positions. It is doubtful that the ranking of fields has shifted much since 1960, although the percentage of M.S.W.s in some fields has probably changed.

[c] Percentage of full-time master's degree students in field instruction as of Nov. 1, 1966. See table 39 above and Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966* (New York: 1967), table 255, p. 30.

[d] The child welfare field is assigned the second largest percentage of students for field instruction. Its need for M.S.W.s by the procedure used in this table cannot be determined from the BLS survey because categories are not comparable with those of CSWE.

By any of these objective standards, there is little question that correctional institutions and probation/parole receive far less than their fair share of graduates from social work education. At present, correctional institutions recruit about 2.7 percent of all M.S.W. graduates, or about one-third of their fair share in proportion to the social welfare labor force. The relative paucity of fieldwork assignments and classroom courses in corrections[37] in the social work curriculum undoubtedly plays a major part in this maldistribution.

Impact of Fair Share on Correctional Institutions. A fair share of M.S.W. graduates for correctional institutions from schools of social work (7.3 percent) would yield a fairly sizeable increase in the manpower available for this field. The additional manpower that would be available to correctional institutions if social work schools contributed their fair share of M.S.W. graduates is shown in table 41. The difference over a 6-year period from 1965 to 1970 is about 1,100 additional social work graduates available to correctional institutions.

The need for social work manpower in correctional institutions would be substantially reduced if social work schools contributed their fair share of graduates. It is estimated that at the end of 1965 there were about 1,000 official vacancies for all positions classifiable as social work in correctional institutions.[38] A fair

TABLE 41.—*Recent and Projected Recruitment of Social Workers to Correctional Institutions if Social Work Schools Contributed a Fair Share of Their Master's Graduates*

Academic year	Total M.S.W. graduates [a]	M.S.W. graduates for correctional institutions	
		Estimated recruitment [b]	Fair share [c]
1964–65	3,175	85	230
1965–66	3,650	100	265
1966–67	3,900	105	285
1967–68	4,300	115	315
1968–69	4,725	130	345
1969–70	5,200	140	380
Total	24,950	675	1,820

[a] These are actual figures for the first 3 years (excluding Puerto Rico), and projected figures at the rate of 10 percent yearly increase for the following 3 years. All figures are rounded to the nearest 25.

[b] At the rate of 2.7 percent. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 5.

[c] At the rate of 7.3 percent, which is the estimated proportion of the social welfare labor force employed in correctional institutions.

---

[37] In a survey by this project, only 19 out of 50 social work schools (or 38 percent) reported that they offered a classroom course in corrections during the academic year 1965–66.

[38] This was calculated on the basis of a vacancy rate of 11.1 percent for the 9,500 persons employed in positions classified as social work in correctional institutions at the end of 1965 (see table 36). The 11.1 percent official vacancy rate is based on that for classification and general counseling personnel at the end of 1965 (see chart X).

The special survey for the President's Commission reports the need for 1,028 additional social workers in correctional institutions (excluding local jails). See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States," *op. cit.*, table 13, p. 240.

share of social work graduates for the 3 academic years 1965–67 would have been sufficient to fill all official vacancies for classification and assignment personnel, and social work's share of diagnostic and treatment personnel.

It is clear that social work education has the means to provide sufficient qualified manpower for correctional institutions by the criterion of *current public policy*. Within a brief period, all official vacancies could be filled by social work graduates if a fair share were recruited to correctional institutions.

However, it should be emphasized that social work education could not easily implement professional standards for correctional institution manpower through a fair share policy. As previously shown, correctional institutions deserve about 7.3 percent of the social work graduates, or about 300 per year (see table 41). It would take about 9 years to produce the number of social workers needed in 1967 for diagnostic and treatment staff, and classification and general counseling staff, in order for correctional institutions to function "most effectively." It would take about 6 years to produce the 1,803 additional social workers needed in all correctional institutions, according to the standards of the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice.

On the basis of another professional standard, it would take 37 years, at the rate of 300 graduates a year, to produce the social workers needed in corrections by 1970, *exclusive of services to adult offenders:*

> At least 11,000 more workers with graduate professional education will be needed to staff probation and treatment facilities for children adjudicated delinquent.[39]

Social work education faces a set of difficult choices. If it continues to advocate that its training is the appropriate educational standard for the several social welfare practice fields, then it must address itself to the realistic problems of training and staffing the fields for which it claims a mandate. This is especially true in view of the long-range expansion required to provide sufficient qualified graduates for the entire social welfare field.

Training patterns have direct consequences for recruitment. Social work education should, therefore, be expected either to establish rational priorities of training need or to provide an approximate fair share of graduates for each practice field. Those who influence educational policy through funds and other means should take into account the maldistribution of professionals now available to the various fields. Parallel studies of other social welfare fields can furnish data that would help in determining what constitutes a rational educational policy that meets manpower and service needs. Corrections (as do groupwork and public assistance) has a right to know whether, and on what basis, its manpower and service needs deserve the low training priority that they now receive from social work education.

SALARIES. Any effort to recruit social workers to correctional institutions must take account of the salary structure in the social welfare field. Project data show that *relatively few correctional institution systems are competitive in their salaries for beginning social work practitioners.*

The median beginning salary paid to 1967 social work graduates was $7,800.[40] The median beginning salary paid in 1966 to personnel filling positions as "classification and general counseling staff" was $5,650. Beginning salaries paid in 1966 to personnel filling positions as "social work staff" in correctional institutions were somewhat higher with a median of $6,105.

As shown in table 42, less than 10 percent of the correctional institution systems in the country are competitive in their salaries for "social work staff." Even fewer systems are competitive in their salaries for "classification and general counseling staff."

The findings in table 42 show that correctional institutions seldom pay competitive salaries for social work personnel. This is also the case in probation/parole, whose median beginning salary for line practitioners ($5,670)[41] is very

---

[39] National Commission for Social Work Careers, *What Every Recruiter Should Know: 1965–66 Facts about Social Work Manpower Supply and Demand* (New York: undated), item No. IV, C. 3.

[40] See Alfred M. Stamm, "1967 Social Work Graduates: Salaries and Characteristics," *Personnel Information,* vol. 11, No. 2, March 1968, p. 52.

[41] See Piven and Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment With Guidelines for New Policy, op. cit.,* vol. 1, ch. 6, table 33.

TABLE 42.—*Beginning Salaries for Social Work Staff and General Counseling Staff in Correctional Institutions Compared With Beginning Salaries of M.S.W. Graduates*

		Correctional institution systems			
	M.S.W. graduates, 1967 [a]	Social work staff, 1966 [b]		Classification and general counseling staff [c]	
Annual salary	Percent	Percent	Number of systems	Percent	Number of systems
Less than $5,000	1.0	18.1	(28)	27.8	(40)
$5,000 to $5,999	1.1	29.0	(45)	34.7	(50)
$6,000 to $6,999	13.6	31.0	(48)	26.4	(38)
$7,000 to $7,999	40.8	16.8	(26)	6.9	(10)
$8,000 to $9,000	32.3	5.2	(8)	4.2	(6)
$10,000 or more	11.2	0.0	(0)	0.0	(0)
Total	100.0	100.1	(155)	100.0	(144)

[a] Drawn from Alfred M. Stamm, "1967 Social Work Graduates: Salaries and Characteristics," *Personnel Information,* vol. 11, No. 2, March, 1968, table 7, p. 52.

[b] Based on responses from 155 correctional institution systems in 1966 regarding the current beginning salaries for "social work staff."

[c] Based on responses from 144 correctional institution systems in 1966 regarding the current beginning salaries for "classification and general counseling staff."

similar to that for classification and general counseling staff ($5,650). It appears that agencies in the correctional field have not generally been able to convince their respective governments of the need for competitive salaries in order to attract qualified manpower. This is especially striking in view of the fact that the highest salaries of 1967 social work graduates were paid by local and state governments.[42]

Summary and Conclusions

Classification and general counseling personnel comprise only about 6.3 percent of all staff in correctional institutions (excluding local jails) throughout the United States. Institutions for juveniles employ almost three times as many classification and general counseling staff as do institutions for "adult" offenders.

The official manpower shortage was 11.1 percent (approximately 500 vacancies). The vacancy rate by this standard of official public policy was much higher in "adult" systems (19.1 percent) than it was in systems for juveniles (8.0 percent).

When a standard of executive assessment is applied, the overall vacancy rate is much higher. Correctional executives indicated that for the "most effective operation" of their institutions at the beginning of 1967, they needed an additional 1,775 classification and counseling staff, or 38.7 percent more than the number actually employed a year earlier. Again, the greatest need for such staff was in "adult" systems. Thus, there is clear evidence that a severe manpower shortage for classification and general counseling staff exists in correctional institutions. The manpower shortage is of crisis proportions in prisons, reformatories and other institutions for adult offenders. Unless this shortage is reduced it will severely limit the effectiveness of rehabilitative programs within correctional institutions.

Are qualified personnel available for recruitment to classification and general counseling positions in correctional institutions? The study first addressed the question of the formal education that qualifies personnel for these positions. A plurality of top correctional executives recommended social work as the educational degree area which qualifies classification and counseling personnel. No other training among 10 other choices received clear support from correctional executives.

Do schools of social work produce enough graduates to fill the manpower needs of correctional institutions for classification and general counseling staff? The study found that out of the 3,650 social work graduates in 1965–66, correctional institutions could expect to recruit about 50 to classification and general counseling positions. This pool of social work graduates is sufficient to fill only about one-tenth of the 500 official vacancies among classification and general counseling personnel at the beginning of 1966. The study estimated that about 60 M.S.W.s from the 1966–67 graduating class would probably be recruited to these positions. This pool of around 60 social work graduates would be sufficient to fill only about 3 percent of the 1,775 additional classification and general counseling personnel needed for the "most effective operation" of correctional institutions in 1967. It is apparent that the number of social work graduates available for recruitment as classification and general counseling staff is far less than the manpower needed for these positions.

---

[42] See Stamm, *op. cit.*, pp. 51–52.

Is it feasible to expand social work programs in order to increase the number of qualified personnel who are likely to be recruited to classification and general counseling staff? The study found that a majority of the deans of schools of social work concur with correctional executives that social work training is the appropriate standard for these personnel. Moreover, graduate schools of social work report they are prepared to expand their programs for work with offenders if additional training resources are made available to them.

No particular discipline, with the possible exception of clinical psychology, generates substantial endorsement as suitable training for classification and general counseling personnel. However, almost all of the academic and professional executives surveyed approve of social work offering an M.S.W. degree program with an extensive specialization in corrections. For this reason, and because of the endorsement of social work by those who hire (i.e., correctional institution executives) and those who train (social work deans), social work education has a greater potential for correctional expansion than does any other discipline. It does not seem that any other identified discipline is more likely to provide the additional qualified personnel that are needed for classification and general counseling positions.

Are the costs of providing additional social work graduates for classification and general counseling so high that expansion of social work programs seems even less feasible? This depends in large part on whether social work institutes specialized degree programs for corrections. The study estimates that it would cost at least $529 million to implement a strategy which entails a general expansion of social work education. This strategy requires correctional institutions to fill vacancies for classification and general counseling personnel from an overall expansion of the number of social work graduates. Correctional institutions would share in this expansion by recruiting graduates to positions as classification and general counseling staff at about the same rate as it does now.

A second strategy, designed to produce social work specialists for corrections, would fill needed vacancies at a considerably lower cost. Additional graduates from specialized programs would be recruited to classification and general counseling positions at a far higher rate than they are now recruited from the "generic" programs. The cost of producing an additional number of social work specialists equivalent to the number of personnel needed for classification and general counseling positions is at least $7 million, and at most $26 million.

A third strategy is aimed at assuring that social work produces its "fair share" of M.S.W. graduates for correctional institutions. A "fair share" strategy does not require additional funds, but it does require a drastic change in school training programs, including fieldwork assignments. Findings indicate that a "fair share" policy would result in about 300 social work graduates a year (instead of about 100) for correctional institutions. At this rate, it would be possible to fill the minimal needs for social work manpower in correctional institutions within a fairly short period. These findings, as well as social work's official philosophy of "generic" education, raise some question as to whether social work education is prepared to implement a policy that provides a fair share of graduates to the various social welfare fields.

The findings in this chapter lead to the pessimistic conclusion that the severe shortage of classification and general counseling personnel in correctional institutions is likely to continue and may even increase. Additional resources are necessary to train and recruit qualified personnel for the entire field of Criminal Justice. The final chapter will examine a new institutional resource designed to help achieve this purpose.

CHAPTER 5

Corrections as a Deprived Field of Service and the Outlook for Change

It is doubtful that any basic social institution in this society has been as shortchanged as has the administration of Criminal Justice. Public policy has assigned to these systems far fewer personnel than are needed and has paid them salaries that are far below the market for equivalent personnel. Problems of manpower shortage are especially acute in probation/parole and for treatment staff of correctional institutions.

Correctional Manpower: An Overview of Shortages and Available Personnel for Probation/Parole and Correctional Institutions

Chart XIV combines findings from volumes 1 and 2 of this study on the number of staff that are employed and needed in correctional systems of the United States. It reveals the following:

> **Correctional institutions get the lion's share (about ¾) of the 98,000 correctional personnel in the country. These figures do not include clerical, vocational, educational, recreation, or maintenance staff, or personnel employed in local jails.**
>
> **Correctional institutions and probation/parole agencies are about equally unsuccessful in filling the positions that have been assigned and budgeted to them. Each had an official shortage rate of about 8 percent at the beginning of 1966, or 1 vacancy for every 12 positions that were filled.**
>
> **Public policy has alloted far fewer jobs to correctional systems than correctional executives judge are needed for their systems to operate most effectively. The overall shortage is most severe in probation/parole agencies.**

Chart XV selects two major personnel categories for comparison: treatment and custody. Treatment personnel in corrections are composed of (1) diagnostic and treatment staff, (2) classification and general counseling staff, and (3) probation/parole officers.

There are far fewer treatment than custody personnel employed

Chart XIV.—*Estimated Size of Staff Employed and Needed in Correctional Systems of the United States, 1966–67*

		Total manpower needed and rate of shortage					
		Official public policy (beginning 1966)		Executive assessment (beginning 1966)		Executive assessment (beginning 1967)	
Correctional system	Employed end of 1965	Number	Rate of shortage [a] (percent)	Number	Rate of shortage [b] (percent)	Number	Rate of shortage [c] (percent)
Correctional institutions [d]	71,711	77,125	7.5	83,204	16.0	87,840	22.5
Probation/parole [e]	26,633	28,780	8.1	35,394	32.9	44,468	67.0
Total	98,344	105,905	7.7	118,598	20.5	132,308	34.5

[a] The ratio of unfilled budgeted positions at the beginning of 1966 to the number of staff actually employed at the end of 1965.

[b] The ratio of additional staff that correctional executives report they needed in 1966 for the "most effective operation" of their systems to the number of staff actually employed at the end of 1965.

[c] The ratio of additional staff that correctional executives reported they needed in 1967 to the number of staff actually employed at the end of 1965.

[d] Includes the following personnel: (1) administrative; (2) custody; (3) cottage parents; (4) classification and general counseling; and (5) diagnostic and treatment. Represents all 432 correctional institution systems and 1,242 institutional facilities in the United States (excluding local jails). Based on data from 267 systems.

[e] Includes the following personnel: (1) administrative and supervisory; (2) probation/parole officers; (3) training officers. Represents all 1,647 probation/parole systems in the United States. Based on data from 807 systems.

CHART XV.—*Estimated Size of Treatment Staff and Custody Staff Employed and Needed in Correctional Systems of the United States, 1966–67*

Treatment staff	Employed end of 1965	Total manpower needed and rate of shortage					
		Official public policy (beginning 1966)		Executive assessment (beginning 1966)		Executive assessment (beginning 1967)	
		Number	Rate of shortage [a] (percent)	Number	Rate of shortage [b] (percent)	Number	Rate of shortage [c] (percent)
Correctional institutions							
Diagnostic and treatment staff	3,767	4,415	17.2	5,670	50.5	6,257	66.1
Classification and general counseling staff	4,552	5,059	11.1	5,474	20.3	6,315	38.7
Probation/parole officers	21,082	22,735	7.8	26,681	26.6	34,587	64.1
Total treatment staff	29,401	32,209	9.6	37,825	28.7	47,159	60.4
Custody staff	47,431	49,845	5.1	53,831	13.5	56,244	18.6

[a] The ratio of unfilled budgeted positions at the beginning of 1966 to the number of staff actually employed at the end of 1965.

[b] The ratio of additional staff that correctional executives report they needed in 1966 for the "most effective operation" of their systems to the number of staff actually employed at the end of 1965.

[c] The ratio of additional staff that correctional executives reported they needed in 1967 to the number of staff actually employed at the end of 1965.

> in the field of corrections, even when all 21,000 probation/parole officers are counted as treatment personnel.
>
> Correctional systems are much more successful in filling custody positions than treatment positions.
>
> There is a severe shortage of treatment personnel in both correctional institutions and probation/parole agencies and it appears to be getting worse.

Chart XVI shows the number of additional personnel needed for correctional systems to function "most effectively." These figures are based on the manpower assessments of top correctional executives and are projected conservatively to 1969. As described throughout this study, the manpower needs reported by correctional executives are in many instances *lower than the estimates given by other authorities.*

> At the beginning of 1966, there was a shortage of over 20,000 correctional personnel, largely in correctional institutions.
>
> By the beginning of 1969, correctional systems will require 61,000 additional staff members beyond the number actually employed at the time of study.
>
> Probation/parole executives foresee a far greater need for additional manpower in their systems than do the executives of correctional institutions.
>
> By 1969, probation/parole agencies must more than double their staff size if they are to operate "most effectively." Correctional institutions require a manpower increase of about one-third beyond the number employed at the time of study.

The problem of manpower shortages in corrections must be viewed in the context of quality as well as quantity. Chart XVII identifies the education that is recommended for six key correctional roles by those who hire and those who train. Respondents were asked to select one university program area for a degree for each work role from among the following 11 choices:

1. Criminology.
2. Corrections.
3. Law—general.
4. Law—criminal.
5. Police science.
6. Psychiatry.
7. Psychology—general.
8. Psychology—clinical.
9. Public administration.
10. Social work.
11. Sociology—general.

CHART XVI.—*Estimated Additional Manpower Needed in Correctional Systems of the United States, 1966 to 1969, According to Assessments of Top Correctional Executives*

	Additional manpower needed [a]			
	1966	1967	1968	1969
Correctional institution systems [b]	11,493	16,129	20,765	25,401
Probation/parole systems [c]	8,761	17,835	26,909	35,983
Total	20,254	33,964	47,674	61,384

[a] Figures for 1966 and 1967 are based on the number needed (beyond those actually employed at the end of 1965) as reported by correctional executives for the "most effective operation" of their systems. Figures for 1968 and 1969 are projected at the same annual increase in personnel as that for 1967 over 1966.

[b] Includes the following personnel: (1) administrative; (2) custody; (3) cottage parents; (4) classification and general counseling; and (5) diagnostic and treatment. Represents all 432 correctional institution systems and 1,242 institutional facilities in the United States (excluding local jails). Based on data from 267 systems.

[c] Includes the following personnel: (1) administrative and supervisory; (2) probation/parole officers; (3) training officers. Represents all 1,647 probation/parole systems in the United States. Based on data from 807 systems.

For custody staff, top executives of correctional institution systems want to employ personnel with a degree in corrections. This standard is shared by chairmen of academic departments that offer a degree program with extensive study in corrections. The corrections degree program is usually of two years duration.

With respect to qualifications for diagnostic and treatment staff, employing executives are about equally divided between clinical psychology, social work, and psychiatry. However, the respective deans each advocate their own professional training as most suitable for this work role.

A plurality of employing executives advocate social work as the appropriate training for classification and general counseling staff. Most social work deans share this standard.

In probation/parole, social work is the training that is considered appropriate by employing executives. There is great consensus among social work deans that their training is most suitable for these roles.

There is, then, a general consensus between those who hire and those who train on the appropriate education for work in corrections. In each instance where a program was designated by employers as appropriate training, the deans or directors of that program independently advocated the same training. Each group of professional schools and academic departments appears to accept, and even to seek, an educational mandate to train for particular work roles in corrections.

As seen in chart XVIII, the designated professional schools and academic departments provide only a small fraction of the qualified manpower needed in corrections. The manpower needs reported here are minimal; the figures reflect only official vacancies for these personnel at the end of 1965.

CHART XVII.—*Extent of Consensus on Formal Qualifications for Correctional Practice*

	University area recommended for degree [a]			
	By employing executives [b]		By designated school deans	
	Discipline recommended	Percent	Discipline recommended	Percent
Correctional institutions:				
Custody staff	Corrections	69	Corrections	[c]65
Diagnostic and treatment staff	Clinical psychology	34	Clinical psychology	[d]78
	Social work	28	Social work	[e]84
	Psychiatry	22	Psychiatry	[f]69
Classification and general counseling staff	Social work	39	Social work	[e]56
Probation/parole:				
Administrators and supervisors	Social work	37	Social work	[e]79
Probation/parole officers	Social work	51	Social work	[e]97
Training officers	Social work	51	•	

[a] University area that most responding executives and deans "strongly advocate" for a degree from among 11 choices.

[b] Top executives of the relevant correctional institution systems or probation/parole systems. Percentages do not include nonrespondents to the item.

[c] Chairmen of academic departments that offer a degree program with a concentration in corrections.

[d] Directors of clinical psychology programs (Ph. D.).

[e] Social work deans.

[f] Directors of psychiatric residency centers.

• Item omitted for this population.

CHART XVIII.—*Official Manpower Vacancies in Correctional Systems for Custody Staff and Treatment Staff During 1966 and the Availability of Qualified Personnel for Recruitment*

Correctional system and work role	Number of official vacancies [a]	Qualifying degree area [b]	Expected recruitment of qualified personnel [c]	Rate at which qualified personnel are available for recruitment (percent)
Correctional institutions:				
Custody staff	2,425	Corrections	80	3
Diagnostic and treatment staff	650	Clinical psychology; social work; psychiatry.	100	15
Classification and general counseling staff	500	Social work	50	10
Probation/parole officers	1,650	Social work	250	15

[a] Number of unfilled budgeted positions for full-time staff at the end of 1965. Numbers are rounded to the nearest 25.

[b] Education recommended to qualify personnel for this role by those who hire (correctional executives) and those who train (relevant school deans or department chairmen).

[c] The number of qualified graduates that correctional systems could expect to recruit to the position from the total graduating class of 1965–66.

> In 1966, academic programs in corrections provided only about 3 percent of the personnel that were needed to fill official vacancies for custody staff.
>
> In 1966, professional schools of clinical psychology, social work and psychiatry made available to corrections only about 15 percent of the treatment staff that were needed to fill official vacancies.
>
> Correctional systems are forced to seek almost all their staff from sources other than the professions—even for positions that require professional training. Their only immediate alternative is to leave positions vacant.
>
> The professional schools are not responsive to their own standards for correctional personnel. It can be surmized that considerable damage results to captive clients, to administration of Criminal Justice, to the character of correctional organizations, and to the credibility of these professions.

Chart XIX shows that a series of massive and expensive educational programs are required to provide even a minimal number of qualified personnel for corrections. These figures are predicated on the basis of a general expansion of professional education that would be of sufficient scope to fill official vacancies. Training costs are based on the assumption that correctional systems will continue to recruit about the same proportion of professional school graduates as they do now.

CHART XIX.—*Estimated Cost of Filling Official Vacancies for Custody Staff and Treatment Staff With an Additional Pool of Qualified Personnel, at the Current Rate of Recruitment From Professional Schools*

Correctional system and work role	Number of official vacancies [a]	Qualifying degree area [b]	Additional graduates needed	Training costs in millions of dollars
Correctional institutions:				
Custody staff	2,425	Corrections	[c] 21,825	[d] 116.2
Diagnostic and treatment staff	650	Clinical psychology; social work; psychiatry.	[e] 30,050	[f] 695.7
Classification and general counseling staff.	500	Social work	[g] 36,500	529.3
Probation/parole officers	1,650	Social work	[h] 24,090	349.3
Total	5,225		112,465	1,690.5

[a] The number of unfilled budgeted positions at the end of 1965 in all 432 correctional institution systems (excluding local jails) and 1,647 probation/parole systems in the United States. Based on data reported to the project by 267 correctional institution systems and 807 probation/parole systems.

[b] Education recommended by those who train and those who hire.

[c] About 1 corrections graduate in 9 is recruited to custody staff.

[d] The cost of producing an additional corrections graduate is approximately $5,325.

[e] This is calculated on the basis that each of the three professions provides one-third of the additional manpower needed. Recruitment from each of the relevant schools to diagnostic and treatment staff is as follows: 1 out of 23.7 clinical psychology graduates; 1 of every 41.7 psychiatry graduates; and 1 out of 73 M.S.W. graduates.

[f] The cost of producing one additional graduate is estimated at $23,250 in clinical psychology, $38,275 in psychiatry, and $14,500 in social work.

[g] About 1 M.S.W. graduate in 73 is recruited to classification and general counseling staff.

[h] About 1 M.S.W. graduate in 15 is recruited to probation/parole.

Because of the low rate at which professional school graduates are recruited to corrections, the schools would have to produce about 112,000 additional graduates in order to provide corrections with the minimal number of custody staff and treatment staff that are needed to fill official vacancies.

It would take about 18 years for the professional schools to produce this number of graduates, since all the schools combined now produce about 6,300 graduates a year.

A conservative estimate of the cost for a general expansion of this magnitude is approximately $1.7 billion. About three-fourths of this sum would be required for graduate schools of social work.

The general expansion would also provide 107,000 additional graduates to fill manpower needs in fields other than corrections.

Chart XX shows what it would cost to provide qualified personnel for corrections through specialized programs in the professional schools. These figures are predicated on the basis of a focused expansion of professional specializations in corrections that is of sufficient scope to fill existing vacancies. Training costs are based on the assumption that correctional systems will recruit all graduates from the professional specializations.

It would cost about $60.5 million for the professional schools to produce enough correctional specialists to fill official vacancies for custody staff and treatment staff. A little more than half of this money would go to graduate schools of social work.

The cost ratio of generalized expansion to specialized expansion is 28 to 1. That is, it would cost 28 times as much to produce the same number of professional school graduates for corrections through a general expansion as it would through an expansion of specialized programs ($1.7 billion compared with $60.5 million).

Only about 60 colleges now offer A.A. or B.A. degree programs with a concentration in corrections. Their present output is small (less than 1,000 graduates per year) but they constitute a highly desirable prospect for expansion in order to produce qualified personnel for custody staff.

At the present time, psychiatric residency centers offer the best hope for expansion of professional specialists for practice in corrections. There are two major reasons for this: (1) the psychiatric centers are the only professional schools that have already organized and now offer specialized programs of this kind; (2) directors of center programs are overwhelmingly in favor (96 percent) of expanding specialized programs for psychiatric practice with offenders.

Neither social work nor clinical psychology now offer a formal specialization in corrections though both are ideologically committed to provide service to offenders. Despite the fact that almost all academic and professional executives surveyed (over 80

Chart XX.—*Estimated Cost of Filling Official Vacancies for Custody Staff and Treatment Staff With an Additional Pool of Qualified Personnel, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Sucess From Professional Specializations*

Correctional system and work role	Number of official vacancies [a]	Qualifying degree areas [b]	Training costs in millions of dollars
Correctional institutions:			
Custody staff	2,425	Corrections	[c] 12.9
Diagnostic and treatment staff	650	Clinical psychology; social work; psychiatry.	[d] 16.4
Classification and general counseling staff.	500	Social work	7.3
Probation/parole officers	1,650	Social work	23.9
Total	5,225		60.5

[a] The number of unfilled budgeted positions at the end of 1965 in all 432 correctional institution systems (excluding local jails) and 1,647 probation/parole systems in the United States. Based on data reported to the project by 267 correctional institution systems and 807 probation/parole systems.

[b] Education recommended by those who train and those who hire.

[c] The cost of producing an additional corrections graduate is estimated at $5,325.

[d] This is calculated on the basis that each of the three professions provides one-third of the additional manpower needed. It is estimated to cost $23,250 to produce an additional clinical psychology graduate (Ph. D.), $14,500 for an additional social work graduate, and $38,275 for an additional psychiatry graduate.

percent) approve of specialized degree programs in corrections for schools of social work (M.S.W.) and clinical psychology (Ph. D.), it it not likely that these programs will be introduced. There are two basic reasons for this: (1) the educational stance in these schools is to avoid specializations for particular practice fields and to emphasize the "generic" character of their professional education; (2) specializations might involve a major reorganization of school programs that would be resisted by spokesmen for private practice and other fields of professional service (e.g., psychiatric social work).

The Outlook for Change

Corrections will probably continue to experience a severe shortage of qualified manpower unless new resources are devised to reduce the manpower gap without critical sacrifices in standards. Because the professional schools have not provided sufficient personnel, correctional systems have been forced to rely increasingly on inservice training. These programs, by organizations whose function is to provide service rather than staff training, may be viewed as compromise efforts to deal with their shortages of qualified manpower. This trend is reflected in the fact that the highest rate of personnel shortage is for correctional training officers.

There exists, then, an urgent necessity to create new institutional means of reducing the manpower gap. Its training objectives must be consonant with professional standards of practice rather than the parochial needs of any particular correctional system. At the same time, it must produce a sufficient number of reasonably qualified personnel who will take jobs in the correctional field. A new type of structure that is designed to meet these objectives is the University Crime and Delinquency Center.

> If the profession is unable to deliver, the society must eventually withdraw the mandate and look elsewhere for fulfillment of the need. The expectations made by society of the field are a product of the past experience the society has had in being satisfied by the profession.[1]

Centers are conceived of as serving four functions: (1) training institutions for students and practitioners of Criminal Justice; (2) centralized channels for recruitment of Criminal Justice personnel; (3) consultation centers for Criminal Justice agencies and relevant professional schools; and (4) research centers for basic and applied studies of Criminal Justice.

A detailed description of project findings on this new type of institutional resource is contained in volume 1 of this study (chs. 7 to 10). A number of the major findings are summarized below.

A National Network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers: The Need

Over 80 percent of probation/parole, correctional institutions, and law enforcement systems think it is of great importance that a Center be established in their area.

Among colleges, universities and professional schools, 88 percent favor a national network of Centers and think this of great importance.

Most colleges, universities, and professional schools (56 percent) think it is of great importance that a Center be established at their own college or university.

The strongest proponents of a Center are the psychiatric residency centers and schools of law; the weakest are the departments of clinical psychology.

Analysis of professional school programs raises serious questions, except for schools of law, about whether qualified graduates are being provided for Criminal Justice, even from the perspective of the schools themselves.

Professional schools of law, psychiatry, clinical psychology and social work show wide policy differences regarding appropriate professional training for practice in Criminal Justice.

Law schools (sample of 83 schools) offer the most coherent pattern of training for Criminal Justice. Their basic program includes training in criminal law for all students, with further specialization available in some programs. Virtually all graduates from the law schools in the United States are considered to be prepared for practice in Criminal Justice.

---

[1] Robert L. Barker and Thomas L. Briggs, *Trends in the Utilization of Social Work Personnel: An Evaluative Research of the Literature*, National Association of Social Workers report No. 2, June 1966, (mimeographed), p. 7.

Psychiatric residency centers (sample of 184 centers) offer a limited introduction to Criminal Justice for almost all residents and specialized programs for some. Most graduates of the majority of center programs are not considered qualified for practice in Criminal Justice. Only the centers that offer extensive specialized study graduate a high proportion of residents considered qualified for psychiatric practice with offenders.

Clinical psychology (sample of 44 schools) offers few specialized courses or programs for practice with offenders. Few courses are considered generically helpful and few graduates are considered prepared for practice in corrections.

Social work schools (sample of 50 schools) manifest the least coherent pattern of educational policy in relation to correctional training. No formal specializations are offered but some schools offer a specialized course on practice in corrections to some students. Almost all schools offer field experience with offenders to a limited number of students. The majority of schools view most of their standard courses as a help in training students for practice in corrections, but there is substantial disagreement among the schools over the contribution of these courses. A majority of the schools consider their graduates trained for professional practice in corrections, but 40 percent feel that their graduates are untrained for practice in this field.

The need for University Crime and Delinquency Centers is further indicated by the extent to which students would profit from special courses offered by a Center. Among Criminal Justice executives, 80 percent feel that many or all students who are interested in work with offenders would profit from special courses offered by a nearby Center. Academic executives, except for chairmen of clinical psychology departments, are similarly convinced (75 percent) that many or all interested students would profit from special courses offered by a Center at their university.

The findings from 322 Criminal Justice systems and 793 colleges, universities, and professional schools indicate that a great need exists for University Crime and Delinquency Centers throughout the country.

Recommended Programs for the Center

Training Programs. More than 90 percent of the executives from each type of Criminal Justice system, and two-thirds of college presidents and deans of professional schools, endorse Center programs that would train staff members from Criminal Justice agencies. The proposed focus for such training programs is the application of professional knowledge to the work of the practitioner in agencies such as probation/parole, correctional institutions, and law enforcement.

A second kind of Center program is geared to the training of recent graduates from professional schools for practice in Criminal Justice. It is intended to help the graduate bridge the gap between his generalized professional education and what he will encounter in Criminal Justice practice. It is also seen as an important means of channeling recent graduates into the Criminal Justice field. Training programs of this kind, conducted during the summer, are favored by most correctional executives but not by a majority of law enforcement agencies. These programs for the recent graduate are favored by most professional school deans but not by a majority of college presidents.

Consultation for Criminal Justice Agencies. Over three-fourths of the Criminal Justice systems recommend that a nearby Center provide consultation on innovations in programs, roles, and research. About three-fourths of the academic institutions, especially the professional schools, recommend a consultation program for Criminal Justice agencies if a Center were established at their university.

Center Research. About three-fourths of the Criminal Justice agencies recommend that Centers conduct two types of research: (1) studies dealing with descriptions and explanations of criminal and delinquent behavior; and (2) studies on the nature and location of decisions in the administration of Criminal Justice and the conditions under which various practice results are achieved. These findings suggest that most Criminal Justice agencies would willingly provide research access to their staff and clientele for studies conducted under Center auspices.

The academic community also strongly favors research as part of a Center program. About five-sixths of the academic institutions recommend that a Center at their university engage in "basic" research on the causes of criminal and delinquent behavior. Almost 80 percent recommend that Centers also conduct research on "practice decisions, processes and outcomes" in work with offenders.

Demonstration Programs. Most Criminal Justice agencies and professional schools recommend that a nearby Center conduct small-scale demonstration programs in correctional practice. However, most college presidents are opposed to a Center at their university conducting such demonstrations. The opposition of many college presidents may be based on the disinclination of the university to assume any direct responsibility for offenders. Professional schools such as social work and psychiatry, which have considerable experience in dealing with client groups, are strongly in favor of Center demonstration programs.

The highest priority of the three Criminal Justice systems is for the Center to train agency personnel in the application of professional knowledge to work with offenders.

The highest priority of the academic institutions is for Center research programs. They are divided on the type of research that is most important. Schools of social work and law place greatest emphasis on practice research in the administration of justice, whereas the other academic groups give highest priority to research on the etiology of criminal and delinquent behavior.

Every population surveyed favored most Center programs. It should be emphasized that the Center programs described here are not merely a matter of general desirability. They are favored by the Criminal Justice agencies that would use them in their own particular areas and by the academic institutions that would be responsible for Center programs at their own universities.

Recommended Administrative Structure for the Center

Study findings indicate that adminstrative location of the Center is apt to present an especially difficult set of problems.

The type of structure that received the least overall support is the autonomous Center that is administratively independent of both practice agencies and the university.

Many Criminal Justice systems are likely to support and participate in a nearby Center only on condition that agencies such as their own have some administrative control over Center policy.

Academic institutions are generally more flexible. Many of them, however, are likely to provide support and resources to a Center only on condition that administrative control be lodged in the university.

Recommended Staff, Stipends, and Funding for the Center

Center Staff. Criminal Justice systems generally recommend that a Center in their area recruit staff predominantly from faculty of the professional schools. Relatively few Criminal Justice systems want Center staff to be comprised primarily of social science faculty.

Schools of law and social work strongly favor a Center staff that is predominantly from the professional schools. Clinical psychology, however, recommends that social scientists be the predominant personnel in a Center at their university. College presidents and department chairmen are almost evenly divided: 38 percent favor a preponderance of social science faculty, 33 percent favor agency practitioners, and 29 percent favor faculty from the professional schools.

Analysis of study findings reveals that *the largest proportion of every population favors a Center staff that is both interdisciplinary and interinstitutional,* that is, a Center staff drawn from all three of the following sources: (1) faculty from professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders; (2) faculty from social science departments concerned with training and research for work with offenders; and (3) experienced staff from agencies that work with offenders.

Center Stipends. An important problem to be faced by all Centers is that of access to key training targets. The realistic limitations of budget and manpower suggest that most Criminal Justice agencies would find it difficult to release a sizable number of staff members for Center training and continue to pay their salaries. A second target group, recent graduates from professional schools, would naturally be reluctant to postpone further the earning of a full salary as professional practitioners.

This study proposed a stipend arrangement designed to solve both of the problems described above. Seventy percent of agencies and colleges surveyed on this item approved of the stipend plan proposed by the project. Under this arrangement, the salary of a practitioner engaged in a Center training program would be borne not by the Criminal Justice agency that employs him but by the federal government through a direct student stipend. A similar stipend would be given to the recent graduate to compensate him for the amount he would otherwise earn as a salaried practitioner.

The stipend plan recommended by respondents takes the strain off the budget and workload of Criminal Justice systems.

The approved stipend plan anticipates the realistic need for a "residency" stipend for new professional school graduates if they are to engage in post-graduate training.

The stipend plan has the added virtue of structuring the student role in accord with the academic rather than inservice training model. The practitioner who receives a training stipend in lieu of a salary from his agency is more likely to approach the Center training program as a student rather than as an employee.

Center Funding. A national network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers is feasible in the United States—provided federal funds are made available for this purpose.

Findings show that universities simply cannot afford the additional expense required to establish and maintain a Crime and Delinquency Center. The clearest fact about the funding of University Crime and Delinquency Centers is that they must be subsidized almost entirely by the government. This means that substantial Federal funds are required if a national Center network is to be created and if any kind of overall standards are to apply to its programs, administration, and personnel.

One-sixth (16 percent) of the universities maintain that a Center is not feasible at their institutions "under any funding arrangement."

Almost half of the universities (48 percent) see the need for a Center but would need full Federal funding. About a third are able to pay some share of the cost involved in creating and operating a Center at their institution.

Of central importance is the fact that 300 out of 359 colleges and universities (or 84 percent) are willing to participate in the establishment and maintenance of a Center at their institutions.

Any serious effort to deal with the massive shortage of qualified Criminal Justice manpower is going to be expensive. It is highly probable, however, that the kinds of Center training programs previously described will cost considerably less than the price of alternative training programs for additional undergraduates (approximately $10,000 for a bachelor's degree), or additional professionals (conservatively estimated at $14,500 for a social worker, $23,000 for a clinical psychologist, and $38,000 for a psychiatrist).

In conclusion, the need and support exist for a national policy that would establish new institutional resources and coordinate the independent efforts of existing organizations to solve the pressing problems entailed in providing qualified manpower for Criminal Justice.

APPENDIX A

Manpower Employed and Needed for Jails and Workhouses

This appendix presents project data on manpower employed and needed for selected work roles in 67 responding jails and workhouses. The manpower figures obtained from these 67 jails were not extrapolated to the population of 3,350 jails and workhouses in the United States. There are two reasons for this: (1) the questionnaire return rate was extremely low (only 67 of a random sample of 488 jails responded); (2) the representativeness of these 67 responding jails is questionable as they constitute only 1.7 percent of the population. It is, therefore, hazardous to extrapolate findings to the population.

Manpower findings for the 67 jails and workhouses are analyzed separately from those of other correctional systems. The first section of this appendix will present the sample and methodology utilized by the study; a second section will present the number of personnel employed and needed in the 67 responding jails and workhouses.

Sample and Methodology for Manpower Analysis of Jails and Workhouses

The 67 jails and workhouses for which manpower data are presented in this appendix constitute a 14 percent return of the 488 jails and workhouses that were sent project questionnaires from February to June 1966. These 488 jails and workhouses represent a one-seventh random sample from each State of the total of 3,350 jails and workhouses in the United States at the time of survey.[1]

Table A gives the distribution of responding jails and workhouses among nine regions of the United States.

The jails and workhouses that returned project questionnaires are located in 33 States. The following States are not represented: Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, Arkansas, Connecticut, Delaware, Hawaii, Idaho, Maryland, Mississippi, Montana, New Mexico, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Vermont, and Washington; the District of Columbia is also not represented. California is represented by the largest number of jails and workhouses (7), followed by Indiana (4) and Pennsylvania (4).

The manpower analysis that follows represents the personnel employed and needed in these 67 jails and workhouses. On questionnaire items needed for the analysis that were not answered by all respondents, findings are extrapolated to the total 67.

TABLE A.—*Responding Jails and Workhouses Classified by Region*

	Number and percent of responding systems	
Region[a]	Number	Percent
New England	(5)	7.5
Middle Atlantic	(8)	11.9
East North Central	(12)	17.9
West North Central	(11)	16.4
South Atlantic	(7)	10.4
East South Central	(3)	4.5
West South Central	(4)	6.0
Mountain	(8)	11.9
Pacific	(9)	13.4
Total	(67)	99.9

[a] The 9 regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation for purposes of their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

---

[1] The sample was drawn from an IBM listing of 3,350 U.S. jails and workhouses that was compiled by the U.S. Bureau of Prisons in 1964. Seven jails originally selected in this manner were removed from the sample because of inappropriate classification and post office returns stating "no such address."

Overview of Manpower in Responding Jails and Workhouses

Number Employed. An estimated 3,900 persons were employed full time on the staffs of 67 jails and workhouses at the end of 1965. This total includes about 775 administrative staff, 2,900 custody staff, 100 diagnostic and treatment staff, and 125 classification and general counseling staff. The average size was 58 staff members per jail. The ratio of custody staff to treatment staff (including classification and general counseling personnel) was 13 to 1.

Official Vacancies. At the beginning of 1966, there were about 525 positions in jails and workhouses that were budgeted but unfilled. These are official vacancies and constitute 13.3 percent of the total work force actually employed at the time. Excluding administrative staff, there were about 350 budgeted but unfilled positions, constituting a shortage rate, by this *standard of official public policy,* of 11.7 percent.

The highest rate of official vacancies at the beginning of 1966 was that for administrative staff, with one vacancy for every five positions that were filled.

Manpower Needed for the "Most Effective Operation" of Jails and Workhouses. According to top executives of jails and workhouses, approximately 1,700 more custody, classification and general counseling, and diagnostic and treatment staff were needed at the beginning of 1966 for their jails and workhouses to function most effectively.[2] A further increase of about 825 of these staff was considered necessary for the following year. The executives of jails and workhouses thus foresee a need for a total of 5,600 staff (excluding administrative staff) by the beginning of 1967. This represents an additional 2,500 personnel, or 81.3 percent more than the number actually employed.

By the standard of executive assessment, then, there is a considerably greater manpower shortage in jails and workhouses than the vacancies calculated by official public policy show.

The highest rate of shortage was for classification and general counseling personnel, with more than one such staff member needed for every one already employed.

The scope of manpower shortage for staff other than administrators in 67 responding jails and workhouses is summarized in table B.

Chart A shows the manpower shortage rates for staff of jails and workhouses. Each shortage rate is determined by the percentage increase needed in the work force beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

Administrative Staff of Jails and Workhouses

Number Employed. At the end of 1965, about 775 full time administrative staff were employed in 67 jails and workhouses—an average of 11.5 per jail or workhouse.

Official Vacancies. At the beginning of 1966, there were 150 administrative positions that were budgeted but unfilled. This official number of vacancies constitutes 20.0 percent of the total work force of administrative staff among these systems. This official 20.0 percent vacancy rate may be regarded as the scope of the manpower shortage for these personnel with respect to the standard of official public policy.

The scope of manpower shortage for administrative staff by the standard of official public policy is summarized in table C.

TABLE B.—*Estimated Size of Staff Employed and Needed in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67, Excluding Administrative Staff*[a]

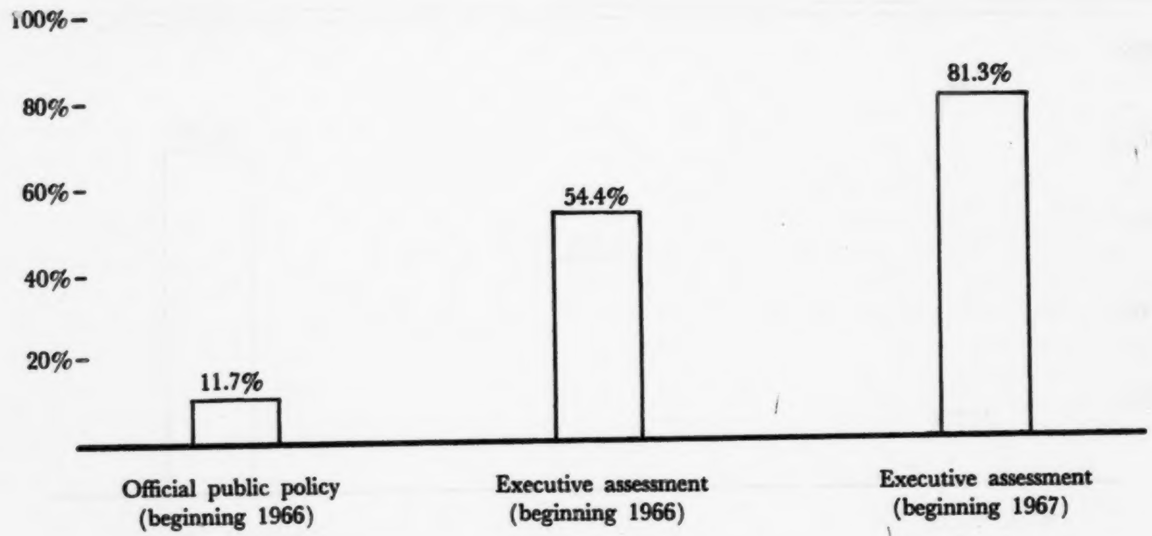
Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed	
		Beginning 1966	Beginning 1967
Official public policy	3,089	3,450	[b]
Executives of jails and workhouses	3,089	4,770	5,601

[a] Includes custody, diagnostic and treatment, and classification and general counseling personnel.
[b] Data not available at the time of survey.

---

[2] Data was not available at the time of survey on the number of administrators needed for "most effective operation."

Chart A.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Staff*[a] *in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67*



[a] Includes custody, diagnostic and treatment, and classification and general counseling personnel. Administrative staff are not included.

Custody Staff of Jails and Workhouses

Number Employed. There were approximately 2,900 full time custody staff employed in 67 jails and workhouses at the end of 1965 (mean = 42.9).

Official Vacancies. The custody positions budgeted but unfilled amounted to about 350 at the beginning of 1966. The official vacancy rate was therefore 11.9 percent of the total custody work force.

Custody Staff Needed for the "Most Effective Operation" of Jails and Workhouses. Executives judged that their systems would need about 4,400 custodial personnel for the most effective operation of jails and workhouses at the beginning of 1966. This involves approximately 1,550 additional staff members, or 53.6 percent more than the number actually employed. A need for about 800 more custody staff was anticipated for the following year, which would mean a total increase of 81.1 percent, or 2,332 more than the number actually employed a year earlier.

Table D records the extent of the manpower shortage for custody staff in 67 jails and workhouses.

The rates of manpower shortage for custody staff in these jails and workhouses is provided in chart B.

Diagnostic and Treatment Staff of Jails and Workhouses

Number Employed. At the end of 1965, there were approximately 100 full-time diagnostic and treatment personnel (clinical psychologists, psychiatrists, or social workers) employed in 67 jails and workhouses (mean = 1.4).

Official Vacancies. Less than 15 positions were budgeted but unfilled for these personnel; the official manpower shortage was 13.8 percent of the number employed.

Table C.—*Estimated Number of Administrative Staff Employed and Needed by the Standard of Official Public Policy in Jails and Workhouses, 1966*

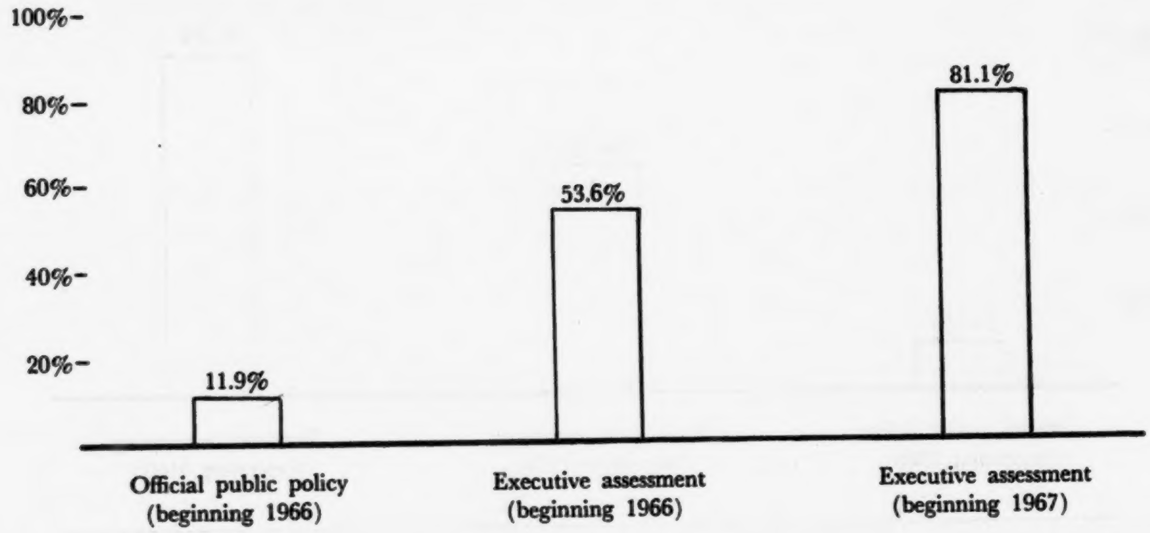
Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed beginning of 1966
Official public policy	771	925

Table D.—*Estimated Number of Custody Staff Employed and Needed in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67*

Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed	
		Beginning 1966	Beginning 1967
Official public policy	2,874	3,215	*
Executives of jails and workhouses	2,874	4,415	5,206

* Data not available at the time of survey.

CHART B.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Custody Staff in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67*



Diagnostic and Treatment Staff Needed for the "Most Effective Operation" of Jails and Workhouses. The executives reported a necessity for about 125 diagnostic and treatment personnel at the beginning of 1966 for the most effective operation of their systems. This would require an increase of over 30 such personnel, or 35.1 percent of the work force. A need for 20 more was anticipated for the following year. Thus, a total of about 50 additional diagnostic and treatment staff is needed by the beginning of 1967; that is, 56.4 percent more than the number actually employed.

Data on the extent of the manpower shortage for diagnostic and treatment staff in 67 jails and workhouses is given in table E.

Chart C provides the rates of manpower shortage for diagnostic and treatment staff.

Classification and General Counseling Staff of Jails and Workhouses

Number Employed. At the end of 1965, there were about 125 staff members engaged in classification and general counseling functions—an average of 1.8 for each of the 67 jails and workhouses.

CHART C.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Diagnostic and Treatment Staff in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67*

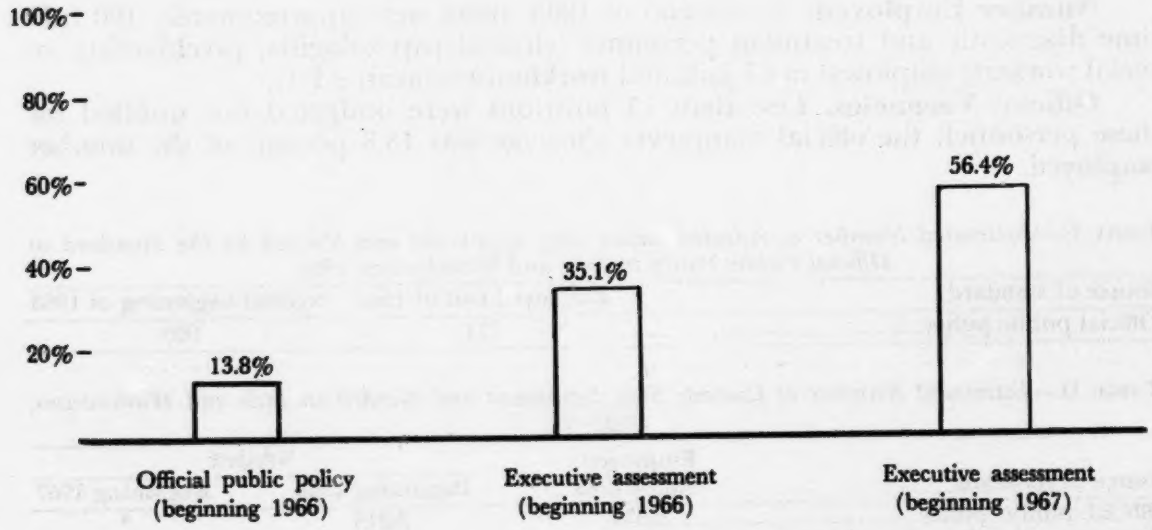


Table E.—*Estimated Number of Diagnostic and Treatment Staff Employed and Needed in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67*

Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed	
		Beginning 1966	Beginning 1967
Official public policy	94	107	*
Executives of jails and workhouses	94	127	147

* Data not available at the time of survey.

Table F.—*Estimated Number of Classification and General Counseling Staff Employed and Needed in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67*

Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed	
		Beginning 1966	Beginning 1967
Official public policy	121	128	*
Executives of jails and workhouses	121	228	248

* Data not available at the time of survey.

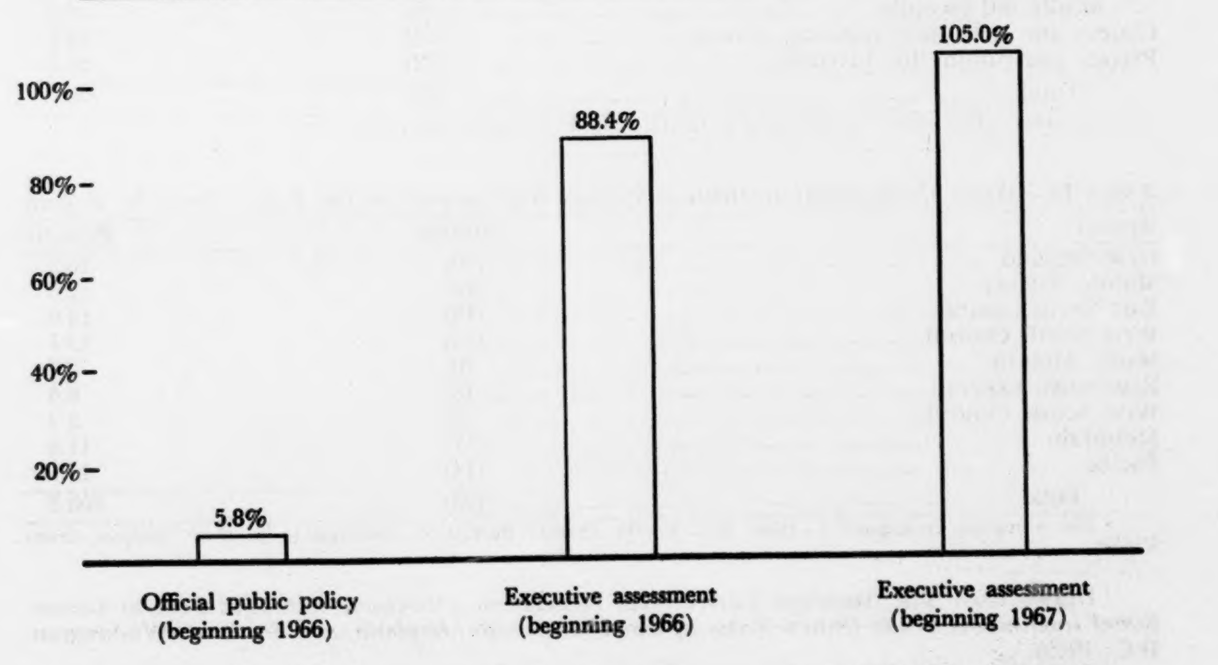
Official Vacancies. Inasmuch as there were less than 10 positions that were budgeted but unfilled, the official manpower shortage was only 5.8 percent of the work force of these personnel.

Classification and General Counseling Personnel Needed for the "Most Effective Operation" of Jails and Workhouses. Jail and workhouse executives report that for the most effective operation of their systems they needed about 225 classification and general counseling staff at the beginning of 1966. This is approximately 100 more workers, or 88.4 percent over the number actually employed. A further need for 20 additional staff was anticipated for the following year. Thus, the total number of additional classification and general counseling personnel needed by the beginning of 1967 was about 125, or 105.0 percent more than the number actually employed the previous year.

In table F can be seen the manpower shortage for classification and general counseling personnel in 67 jails and workhouses.

The rates of manpower shortage for classification and general counseling staff are given in chart D.

Chart D.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Classification and General Counseling Staff in Jails and Workhouses, 1966–67*



Major Correctional Institution Systems

This appendix describes the 93 "major" correctional institution systems, which are of the following types: (1) State systems with facilities for adults, juveniles, or both groups;[1] (2) county and city training schools for juveniles;[2] and (3) private correctional institutions for juveniles.[3] Detention homes and local jails and workhouses are not included.

Table G shows the distribution of these systems by government level and type of facility.

The 93 systems represent a total of over 400 correctional institution facilities. The mean number of facilities in systems that provide care for adults (adults only or adults and juveniles) is 8.1. The mean number of facilities in systems that provide care exclusively for juveniles is 2.0 (usually one training school for boys and one for girls.)

Table H gives the location of these systems among the nine regions of the country.

A detailed questionnaire of 16 pages (long form) was completed by top executives of the 93 major correctional institution systems. It included a lengthy section eliciting executive recommendations on manpower standards and policy for Criminal Justice.

Two groups of major correctional institution systems are not represented in this group of 93: (1) systems responding to a six-page followup questionnaire (short form) that did not include executives' recommendations on manpower standards and policy for Criminal Justice (N=43) and (2) major systems that did not respond to project surveys (N=74).

TABLE G.—*Major Correctional Institution Systems Represented in the Policy Study by Level of Government and Type of Facility*

Type of correctional institution system	Number	Percent
State systems with facilities designed for:		
Adults [a] only (e.g., prisons and reformatories)	(25)	26.9
Juveniles only (e.g., training schools)	(23)	24.7
Adults and juveniles	(9)	9.7
County and municipal training schools	(14)	15.1
Private institutions for juveniles	(22)	23.7
Total	(93)	100.1

[a] Includes "older youth" not classified as juvenile within the responding jurisdiction.

TABLE H.—*Major Correctional Institution Systems Represented in the Policy Study by Region*

Region [a]	Number	Percent
New England	(10)	10.8
Middle Atlantic	(12)	12.9
East North Central	(13)	14.0
West North Central	(14)	15.1
South Atlantic	(9)	9.7
East South Central	(8)	8.6
West South Central	(2)	2.2
Mountain	(11)	11.8
Pacific	(14)	15.1
Total	(93)	100.2

[a] The 9 regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

---

[1] Drawn from The American Correctional Association, *Directory, State and Federal Correctional Institutions of the United States of America, Canada, England, and Scotland* (Washington, D.C.: 1965).

[2] Drawn from Charles E. Lawrence, *Directory of Public Training Schools Serving Delinquent Children* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Children's Bureau, 1964).

[3] Drawn from (1) *Directory for Exceptional Children* (Boston: Porter Sargent, 1965) and (2) New York State Department of Social Welfare, *Directory of Child-Caring Institutions and Agencies* (New York: 1962).

Thus, of the 210 major correctional institution systems in the United States, 64.7 percent (N = 136) completed questionnaires for the project and 44.3 percent reported in depth the recommendations of their executives for qualified manpower in Criminal Justice (N = 93).

Table I compares the 93 major systems with the remaining major systems in the United States.

TABLE I.—*Proportion of Major Correctional Institution Systems Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study*

Type of correctional institution system	Responding systems: Policy recommendations represented		Responding systems: Policy recommendations not represented [a]		Nonresponding systems		Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
State and Federal systems:								
Adult	61.0	(25)	24.4	(10)	14.6	(6)	100.0	(41)
Juvenile	52.3	(23)	20.5	(9)	28.3	(12)	100.0	(44)
Adult and juvenile	60.0	(9)	26.7	(4)	13.3	(2)	100.0	(15)
Subtotal	57.0	(57)	23.0	(23)	20.0	(20)	100.0	(100)
County and municipal training schools	32.6	(14)	32.6	(14)	34.9	(15)	100.1	(43)
Private institutions for juveniles	32.9	(22)	9.0	(6)	58.2	(39)	100.1	(67)
Total	44.3	(93)	20.5	(43)	35.2	(74)	100.0	(210)

[a] Short-form questionnaires omitted policy items.

APPENDIX C

Major Probation/Parole Systems

A probation/parole system is defined as follows: all departments, divisions, and branch offices of a public organization whose functions include probation or parole work or administration, and whose personnel were recruited to and operate under the direction of the same top probation/parole executives.[1]

The 146 major probation/parole systems for which policy data are reported in this study are of the following types: (1) centralized systems on the State and Federal levels; [2] (2) systems with 10 or more full-time probation or parole officers [3] on any level of government.

The probation/parole executives whose educational recommendations are reported throughout this study represent 146 major probation/parole systems in the United States. A major system is one that employs at least 10 full-time officers, or is centralized on either the Federal or State level. Fifty-six percent of these systems are probation agencies, 15 percent are parole agencies, and 29 percent have responsibility for both probation and parole. Thirty-one percent of these systems serve only juvenile offenders, 25 percent serve only adult offenders, and 44 percent provide services for both age groups.

The 146 systems represented in this study constitute 59 percent of all 247 major probation/parole systems in the country at the time of survey. They are distributed as follows by level of government:

(a) 75 percent of major Federal systems (9 of 12).
(b) 54 percent of major State systems (49 of 91).
(c) 62 percent of major county systems (81 of 130).
(d) 50 percent of major municipal systems (7 of 14).

The number and percentage of major probation/parole systems in the country whose policy recommendations are represented in this study are given in table J.

Table J.—*Proportion of Major Probation/Parole Systems Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study*

Government level of major systems	Responding systems: Policy recommendations represented	Responding systems: Policy recommendations not represented	Nonresponding systems	Total	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Federal	75	0	25	100	(12)
State	54	16	30	100	(91)
County	62	15	22	99	(130)
Municipal	50	7	43	100	(14)
Total	59	15	26	100	
Number of systems	(146)	(36)	(65)		(247)

---

[1] See vol. 1 of this series for an analysis of the need for qualified manpower in probation/parole.

[2] A centralized system is defined as one that has probation or parole jurisdiction over an entire geographical-governmental unit (e.g., an entire State). A decentralized system is operationally autonomous but has jurisdiction over only one part of a geographical-governmental unit (e.g., Federal district probation/parole offices).

[3] This is indicated in the following: National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Probation and Parole Directory, United States and Canada* (New York: 1963). This directory was updated in 1965 through correspondence with relevant state departments and reports from field staff of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

APPENDIX D

Major Law Enforcement Systems

This volume draws on data from 108 "major" law enforcement systems.[1]

A law enforcement system is defined as follows: all departments, divisions and branch offices of a public organization whose functions include law enforcement and whose personnel were recruited to and operate under the direction of the same top executive.

The criteria for a "major" law enforcement system are as follows: (1) all systems on the State and Federal levels; (2) systems in large counties; [2] (3) systems in large municipalities.[3]

The 108 law enforcement systems for which policy data are reported in this volume are classified by level of government in table K.

The 108 systems included in this policy study represent over 100,000 law enforcement officers. The mean number of full-time law enforcement staff in these departments is 950.

Table L shows the distribution of these systems among the nine regions of the United States.

A detailed questionnaire of 15 pages (long form) was completed by top executives of the 108 major law enforcement systems referred to in this volume. The questionnaire included a lengthy section eliciting executives' recommendations on manpower standards and policy for Criminal Justice.

Two groups of major law enforcement systems are not represented in this policy analysis: (1) systems responding to a six-page followup questionnaire (short form) that did not include executives' recommendations on manpower standards and policy for Criminal Justice (N=49); (2) major systems that did not respond to project surveys (N=80).

TABLE K.—*Major Law Enforcement Systems Represented in the Policy Study by Level of Government*

Government level	Number	Percent
Federal	(3)	2.8
State	(27)	25.0
County	(12)	11.1
Municipal	(66)	61.1
Total	(108)	100.0

TABLE L.—*Major Law Enforcement Systems Represented in the Policy Study by Region*

Region [a]	Number	Percent
New England	(5)	4.6
Middle Atlantic	(11)	10.2
East North Central	(23)	21.3
West North Central	(10)	9.3
South Atlantic	(14)	13.0
East South Central	(7)	6.5
West South Central	(10)	9.3
Mountain	(7)	6.5
Pacific	(18)	16.7
All regions of the United States	(3)	2.7
Total	(108)	100.1

[a] The 9 regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in their *Uniform Crime Reports.*

---

[1] Drawn from: (1) *Law Enforcement Personnel in the U.S. Government* (unpublished), provided by the Division of Probation, Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts in 1965, and (2) The National Police Chiefs and Sheriffs Information Bureau, *The National Directory of Law Enforcement Administrators* (Milwaukee: 1965).

[2] Operationally defined as counties whose county seat had a population of 250,000 or more.

[3] Cities with a population of 100,000 or more.

Of the 237 major law enforcement systems in the United States, 66.2 percent (N = 157) completed questionnaires for the project and 45.6 percent reported in depth the recommendations of their executives for qualified manpower in Criminal Justice (N = 108).

Table M compares the 108 major systems represented in this policy study with the remaining major systems in the United States.

TABLE M.—*Proportion of Major Law Enforcement Systems Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study*

Type of law enforcement system	Responding systems: Policy recommendations represented		Responding systems: Policy recommendations not represented [a]		Nonresponding systems		Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Federal	37.5	(3)	12.5	(1)	50.0	(4)	100.0	(8)
State	55.1	(27)	12.2	(6)	32.7	(16)	100.0	(49)
County	25.0	(12)	20.8	(10)	54.2	(26)	100.0	(48)
Municipal	50.0	(66)	24.2	(32)	25.8	(34)	100.1	(132)
Total	45.6	(108)	20.7	(49)	33.8	(80)	100.1	(237)

[a] Short-form questionnaires omitted policy items.

APPENDIX E

Colleges and Universities

This policy study draws on data from 511 colleges and universities in the United States (excluding professional schools). The policy recommendations of college presidents and department chairmen originate from two populations:

(1) Academic departments that had been cited in earlier studies[1] as offering an "educational program" in one or more of the Crime and Delinquency fields (N = 149);

(2) A one-third random sample of accredited colleges and universities, stratified by college level (senior and junior), which had not been cited in earlier studies as offering an "educational program" in any of the Crime and Delinquency fields (N = 362).[2]

The academic institutions represented in this study are located in 47 States and the District of Columbia.[3] California is represented by the largest number of institutions (83), followed by New York (36), Pennsylvania (30), Michigan (22), Illinois (21), and Ohio (21). Those States with the smallest representation are Nevada and Maine (one each).

Table N below shows the distribution of responding colleges and universities among nine regions of the country.

As shown in table O, slightly more than two-thirds (69 percent) of the responding academic institutions here reported are four-year (senior) colleges that offer a baccalaureate degree (N = 353). The remaining institutions (31 percent) are 2-year (junior) colleges offering an associate degree (N = 158).

TABLE N.—*Academic Institutions Represented in the Policy Study by Region*

Region[a]	Number of responding academic institutions	Percent of total
New England	(31)	6.1
Middle Atlantic	(73)	14.3
East North Central	(80)	15.7
West North Central	(58)	11.4
South Atlantic	(70)	13.7
East South Central	(33)	6.5
West South Central	(33)	6.5
Mountain	(28)	5.5
Pacific	(105)	20.5
Total	(511)	100.2

[a] The 9 regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

TABLE O.—*Academic Institutions Classified by College Level*

College level	Number	Percent
Senior	(353)	69
Junior	(158)	31
Total	(511)	100

---

[1] See Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement*, Source Book I, *op. cit.*, app. B.

[2] Drawn from a population of all junior and senior colleges listed in American Council on Education, *American Junior Colleges* (Washington, D.C.: 1963) *American Colleges and Universities* (Washington, D.C.: 1964), and *Lovejoy's College Guide* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1966). Also included were all institutions identified as offering an undergraduate Social Welfare program (listed in an untitled directory compiled by the Council on Social Work Education, 1965). Excluded from the population for purposes of drawing the samples were the following categories: (1) colleges or universities not regionally accredited; (2) colleges made up of a single graduate professional school (e.g., law or medicine); (3) institutions previously selected for project mailing by virtue of an undergraduate program in Social Welfare, or previous designation as offering an "educational program" in the Crime and Delinquency fields.

For project purposes, accredited schools are those academic institutions designated in *Lovejoy's College Guide, op. cit.* as having approval and recognition by one of the six regional accrediting associations in the United States. An academic institution which is approved only by a State university, State board, department of education, or a professional association is considered nonaccredited.

[3] Alaska, Hawaii, and Delaware are not represented.

TABLE P.—*Proportion of Academic Institutions Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in This Study*

College level	Responding institutions				Nonresponding institutions		Total	
	Policy recommendations represented		Policy recommendations not represented [a]					
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Senior	61.5	(353)	9.2	(53)	29.2	(168)	99.9	(574)
Junior	59.8	(158)	14.4	(38)	25.8	(68)	100.0	(264)
Total	61.0	(511)	10.9	(91)	28.2	(236)	100.1	(838)

---

[a] Brief form of questionnaire omitted policy items.

Two groups of academic institutions (other than professional schools) are not represented in this policy analysis: (1) institutions responding to a brief questionnaire that did not include executives' recommendations on manpower standards and educational policy for Criminal Justice (N=91); (2) academic institutions that did not respond to project surveys (N=236).

Of the 838 academic institutions surveyed for this study, 71.8 percent completed questionnaires for the project, and 61.0 percent reported the recommendations of their executives for qualified manpower in Criminal Justice (N=511).

As can be seen in table P, the ratio of senior and junior colleges represented in this policy study is very close to the ratio in the academic population.

APPENDIX F

Professional Schools of Social Work, Clinical Psychology, Psychiatry, and Law

The data on educational policy for the fields of Criminal Justice were drawn from four populations of professional schools as follows: (1) graduate schools of social work in the United States accredited by the Council on Social Work Education;[1] (2) doctoral clinical psychology programs in the United States approved by the American Psychological Association;[2] (3) psychiatric residency centers in the United States approved by the Council on Medical Education and the American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology;[3] and (4) law schools approved by the American Bar Association.[4]

Schools of social work responding to the project questionnaire are located in 31 States and the District of Columbia. Responding schools of clinical psychology are located in 22 States and the District of Columbia. Psychiatric residency centers are located in 36 States and the District of Columbia, and responding schools of law are located in 38 States and the District of Columbia. New York is represented by the largest number of schools of social work, clinical psychology, and psychiatric residency centers. California is represented by the largest number of law schools.

The location of professional schools by region is shown in table Q.

Policy recommendations in this study are based upon responses to project questionnaires from 361 graduate professional schools in the United States. This represents 73% of all approved professional schools in the four populations at the time of survey (March 1966 to February 1967).

Each of the four surveys employed a mail questionnaire of approximately 10 pages. An identical followup was sent to nonrespondents after 6 weeks. Questionnaire items were highly structured and precoded. Questionnaires were addressed personally to the following: deans and directors of schools of social work; directors of clinical psychology programs; directors of education programs at psychiatric residency centers; and deans of schools of law. Approximately two-thirds of the questionnaires were filled out by the dean or director; the remainder were completed by respondents in other administrative or teaching positions of the school.

As shown in table R, a high proportion of each professional school population is represented in this policy study.

---

[1] Council on Social Work Education, *Graduate Professional Schools of Social Work in Canada and the U.S.A.* (New York: January 1965).

[2] American Psychological Association, "Directors of Training, APA Approved Graduate Departments of Psychology 1965-66" (unpublished).

[3] "Approved Residencies—Psychiatry," *The Journal of the American Medical Association*, vol. 194, October-December 1965, pp. 227-235.

[4] American Bar Association, "Law Schools on the Approved List of A.B.A., 1964," *Review of Legal Education, Law Schools and Bar Admission Requirements in the United States* (Chicago: Fall, 1964), pp. 4-16.

Table Q.—*Professional Schools Represented in the Policy Study by Region*

Region [a]	Social work		Clinical psychology		Psychiatry		Law	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
New England	8	(4)	11	(5)	11	(21)	5	(4)
Middle Atlantic	18	(9)	18	(8)	30	(55)	7	(6)
East North Central	20	(10)	20	(9)	14	(25)	20	(17)
West North Central	14	(7)	16	(7)	9	(17)	14	(12)
South Atlantic	14	(7)	9	(4)	13	(23)	18	(15)
East South Central	2	(1)	5	(2)	3	(5)	6	(5)
West South Central	10	(5)	9	(4)	5	(10)	10	(8)
Mountain	4	(2)	7	(3)	3	(5)	8	(7)
Pacific	10	(5)	5	(2)	13	(23)	11	(9)
Total	100	(50)	100	(44)	100	(184)	100	(83)

[a] The 9 regions correspond to those utilized by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

Table R.—*Proportion of Professional Schools Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in Study*

Professional school	Respondents		Nonrespondents		Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Social work	86	(50)	14	(8)	100	(58)
Clinical psychology	66	(44)	34	(23)	100	(67)
Psychiatry	79	(184)	21	(50)	100	(234)
Law	62	(83)	38	(50)	100	(133)
Total	73	[a] (361)	27	(131)	100	(492)

[a] Excludes 13 returns after Feb. 15, 1967, the cutoff date for computer analysis.

APPENDIX G

Existing University Crime and Delinquency Centers

Each of the 26 existing Crime and Delinquency Centers for which policy data are reported in this study was required to meet the following criteria:

(1) That it exist as a distinct organizational unit other than an academic department of a college or university;

(2) That it be responsible to either central administration and/or a school or department of a college or university; and

(3) That it offer training courses, institutes, or workshops for at least one of the following groups during the academic years 1965–66 or 1966–67: [1]

Law enforcement personnel (i.e., administrators, police officers —adult division, and police officers—juvenile division).

Court personnel (i.e., judges in criminal, juvenile, or family courts, prosecuting attorneys, and public defender attorneys).

Probation and parole personnel (i.e., administrators, parole board members, probation/parole officers—adult division, and probation/parole officers—juvenile division).

Correctional institution personnel (i.e., administrators, cottage parents, correctional officers, classification and assignment personnel, diagnostic and treatment personnel, and general counseling personnel).

Faculty of the college or university.

The Centers for which policy data are reported are located in 17 States and the District of Columbia. Four Centers are found in California and three in Ohio. Illinois, Texas, and the District of Columbia each have two Centers. The remaining Centers are located in 13 different states.[2]

The distribution of Centers among the nine regions of the country is shown in table S. Seven of the Centers, representing the largest regional concentration, are found in the East North Central region. Three regions (New England, East South Central, and Mountain) are represented by one Center each. The other 16 Centers are fairly evenly distributed among the remaining regions.

A majority of Centers (21) are located at a senior college or a graduate professional school. The distribution of Centers by the level of the college or university at which they are located is shown in table T.

TABLE S.—*Existing University Centers Classified by Region*

Region [a]	Number	Percent
New England	(1)	3.8
Middle Atlantic	(2)	7.7
East North Central	(7)	26.9
West North Central	(3)	11.5
South Atlantic	(4)	15.4
East South Central	(1)	3.8
West South Central	(3)	11.5
Mountain	(1)	3.8
Pacific	(4)	15.4
Total	(26)	99.8

[a] The 9 regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation for purposes of their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

---

[1] This criterion excludes organizations engaged in research, consultation, or related activities but not directly engaged in training personnel for Criminal Justice.

[2] Georgia, Kansas, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Wisconsin.

Table T.— *Existing University Centers Classified by Level of College at Which They Are Located*

College level	Number	Percent
Junior college	(3)	11.5
Senior college [a]	(14)	53.8
Graduate professional school	(7)	26.9
Unclear	(2)	7.7
Total	(26)	99.9

[a] These do not include Centers located at graduate professional schools.

Data for this policy study were drawn from 26 of the 75 organizations originally presumed to be University Crime and Delinquency Centers.[3] Table U classifies the 75 organizational units included in the original mailing. About a third of these organizations (N=27) met project criteria for a University Crime and Delinquency Center. Twenty-three Centers offered training programs during both the 1965–66 and 1966–67 academic years. One Center was operative during the 1965–66 academic year but terminated at the end of that year. Three Centers did not begin training operations until September 1966.

Thus, the policy recommendations of executives from 26 of the 27 known Centers (96 percent) are reported in this study.

Table U.—*Classification of Organizational Units Previously Cited [a] as Special University Centers for Training in the Criminal Justice Fields*

Type of organizational unit	Number	Percent
Special university Centers for Criminal Justice training [b]	(26)	34.7
Academic departments for Criminal Justice training	(32)	42.7
Centers not at a university, *or* University Centers in fields other than Criminal Justice	(10)	13.3
Special university Centers for Criminal Justice terminated prior to 1965–66	(3)	4.0
Special university Centers for Criminal Justice research (only)	(2)	2.7
No response	(1)	1.3
Late response (Center for Criminal Justice training)	(1)	1.3
Total	(75)	100.0

[a] Cited in the literature.
[b] Excluded one Center whose questionnaire was returned after the cutoff date for computer analysis.

---

[3] A review of earlier studies and the relevant literature yielded a preliminary list of 75 "centers" which were cited as offering training for the Criminal Justice fields in the academic years 1965–66 or 1966-67. Questionnaires were mailed to the directors or administrative heads of each "center."

APPENDIX H

Questionnaires

Correctional Institutions
Colleges and Universities
Doctoral Programs of Clinical Psychology

MANPOWER AND TRAINING IN CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTIONS 1965–1966

PILOT STUDY OF CORRECTIONAL TRAINING AND MANPOWER

Sponsored by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency,
and Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, H.E.W.

As a responding correctional system, you will be entitled to a copy of our study report on trends in correctional manpower and training in U.S. universities and agencies. If you would like a copy of this report, be sure to check on the final page of the questionnaire.

All the information needed in this questionnaire can be provided simply by checkmarks or an occasional brief phrase.

PLEASE SKIP THOSE SECTIONS WHICH DO NOT APPLY TO YOU

It is unlikely that every section of this questionnaire is applicable to your particular institutional system.

If, for example, your system does not administer both juvenile and adult facilities, answer only those questions which apply to your type of facility.

SECTION I:
POPULATION AND PERSONNEL OF YOUR INSTITUTIONAL SYSTEM **

1) How many Correctional facilities are administered under your jurisdiction?

	Number of these facilities operating in Dec. 1965	*Number anticipated in Dec. 1966*
A. *Juvenile Facilities*		
a) Temporary Detention Centers for delinquents		
b) Training Schools for boys		
c) Training Schools for girls		
d) Halfway-Houses for delinquents		
e) Other (specify)		
B. *Adult and Older-Youth Facilities*		
a) Prisons for men		
b) Prisons for women		
c) Forestry and other camps		
d) Halfway-Houses for adults and older youth		
e) Institutions administering community parole		
f) Other (specify)		

**** For project purposes, your institutional system is meant to include: personnel who plan and operate all those correctional institutions which make up a separate division under your administrative direction. If juvenile and adult institutions are divided into separate administrative divisions, include only those personnel who operate under your administrative direction. (Include camps, halfway-houses, diagnostic centers, and other institutional facilities if they are under your administrative direction.)**

Do not include parole personnel in this questionnaire unless they are recruited to and operate under the direction of your correctional institution(s).

2) On the average, what is the (approximate) population of your Correctional facilities?

	Number during Dec. 1965	*Number anticipated in Dec. 1966*
A. *Population in Juvenile Facilities*		
a) Juveniles awaiting delinquency hearing		
b) Adjudicated male delinquents		
c) Adjudicated female delinquents		
B. *Population in Adult and Older-Youth Facilities*		
a) Adults and youth awaiting trial		
b) Convicted male adults and youth		
c) Convicted female adults and youth		

3) What was your personnel situation during December 1965?

A. *Personnel for all Juvenile Facilities* (full-time employees only)

Major assignment	*Approximate number during Dec. 1965*	*Approximate number of unfilled positions during Dec. 1965*
a) Administrative personnel (in all departments)		
b) Cottage Parents		
c) Custody Staff		
d) Diagnostic and Treatment Staff (psychiatrists, social workers, and psychologists only)		
e) Classification and General Counseling Staff		
f) Personnel who train the above staff (a–e)		
g) Educational and Recreational Staff		
h) Parole Board members		

B. What percentage of these personal are women (approximately)?

10% or less 20% 30% 40% or more

(circle one)

4) A. *Personnel for all Adult and Older-Youth Facilities* (full-time employees only)

Major assignment	*Approximate number during Dec. 1965*	*Approximate number of unfilled positions during Dec. 1965*
a) Administrative personnel (in all departments)		
b) Custody Staff		
c) Diagnostic and Treatment Staff (psychiatrists, social workers, and psychologists only)		

d) Classification and General Counseling Staff	______	______
e) Personnel who train the above staff (a–d)	______	______
f) Educational and Recreational Staff	______	______
g) Parole Board members	______	______

B. What percentage of these personnel are women (approximately)?

10% or less 20% 30% 40% or more

(circle one)

5) A. In your judgment, what would be the *optimal* number of full-time staff for most effective operation of your Correctional facilities?

	Optimal number now	***Optimal number a year from now***
a) Cottage Parents	______	______
b) Custody Staff	______	______
c) Diagnostic and Treatment Staff	______	______
d) Classification and General Counseling Staff	______	______
e) Personnel who train the above staff (a–d)	______	______

B. Optimal percentage of these personnel who should be women

10% or less 20% 30% 40% or more

(circle one)

6) A. What are the current salary levels in your institutional system (approximately)?

	Annual salary
a) Beginning salary for Cottage Parents	$______
b) Beginning salary for Custody Staff	$______
c) Beginning salary for Classification and General Counseling Staff	$______
d) Beginning salary for Social Work Staff	$______

B. In your judgment, what salary level would be necessary for you to fill staff vacancies with optimal personnel?

a) Beginning salary for Cottage Parents	$______
b) Beginning salary for Custody Staff	$______
c) Beginning salary for Classification and General Counseling Staff	$______
d) Beginning salary for Social Work Staff	$______

SECTION II:

IN-SERVICE AND GENERAL TRAINING IN YOUR INSTITUTIONAL SYSTEM: 1965 AND 1966

An "In-Service" training program consists of a scheduled series of teaching sessions which are organized and conducted under the sole auspice of your institutional system. In-Service teaching sessions may be limited to particular personnel from your own system or may be open to employees of other correctional facilities.

In contrast, the following are considered "General" training: supervisory conferences, special lectures or seminars, and short-term institutes or workshops.

General Training Programs in 1965 and 1966

1) A. Please check those General training programs which you conducted during 1965.

	For cottage parents	***For custody staff***	***For classification and general counseling staff***
a) Supervisory Conferences between a staff member and his supervisor	☐	☐	☐
b) Special Lectures or Seminars	☐	☐	☐
c) Short-term Institutes or Workshops	☐	☐	☐
d) Other types of General training programs (specify)	☐	☐	☐

B. Will your General training programs be *more* or *less* extensive in 1966 than in 1965? (check only for those programs which you plan to conduct in 1966)

	More in 1966	***About the same***	***Less in 1966***
a) Supervisory Conferences between a staff member and his supervisor	☐	☐	☐
b) Special Lectures or Seminars	☐	☐	☐
c) Short-term Institutes or Workshops	☐	☐	☐
d) Other General training programs	☐	☐	☐

2) A. Was your institutional system used for field work training of students by a university during 1965? ☐ **NO**

☐ **YES** ______________ ______________________________

(number of students) (name of department and university)

B. If students had been available in 1965, what is the total number for whom your system would have been willing to provide facilities for field work training?

______________________ ☐ **NONE**

(number of students)

C. Is your institutional system willing to provide facilities for field work training if students are made available?

☐ **a) Yes, in 1966** ______________________

(number of students)

☐ **b) Not in 1966, but perhaps in the following year.**

☐ **c) Not interested.**

D. From which university department(s) would you be willing to accept students for field work training in your system?

____

In-Service Training Programs in 1965

(If your agency did *not* conduct any In-Service training programs in 1965, please continue with In-Service Training Plans for 1966 on p. 9 and check here. ☐)

1) A. How many In-Service training programs did you conduct for the following personnel groups in 1965? (Do *not* include "General" training in this section.)

Personnel (full-time employees only)	*Number of programs made up mainly of this personnel group* *
a) Cottage Parents	
b) Custody Staff	
c) Classification and General Counseling Staff	
d) Diagnostic and Treatment Staff (psychiatrists, social workers, and psychologists only)	

B. How many of these personnel were enrolled in any of your In-Service Training Programs in 1965?

	Number enrolled (approximate)
a) Cottage Parents	
b) Custody Staff	
c) Classification and General Counseling Staff	
d) Diagnostic and Treatment Staff	

2) How long did your In-Service training program(s) last in 1965?

a) Program(s) for Cottage Parents usually lasted about __________ hours a week for __________ weeks.

b) Program(s) for Custody Staff usually lasted about __________ hours a week for __________ weeks.

c) Program(s) for Classification and General Counseling Staff usually lasted about __________ hours a week for __________ weeks.

3) In general, what was the most typical educational background of the personnel who were enrolled in your 1965 In-Service training program(s)?

	Cottage parents (check one)	*Custody staff (check one)*	*Classification and general counseling staff (check one)*
a) High school	☐	☐	☐
b) Some college	☐	☐	☐
c) B.A. in Sociology or Psychology	☐	☐	☐
d) B.A. in Corrections or Social Work	☐	☐	☐
e) Other B.A. or B.S.	☐	☐	☐
f) Other college degree	☐	☐	☐

4) What modes of instruction were used most frequently in your 1965 training sessions for Cottage Parents? (If your institutional system has no Cottage Parents, describe your instruction for CUSTODY STAFF and check here. ☐)

	Used most frequently (check no more than 3)	*Most effective (check one only)*
a) Discussion of assigned cases or readings	☐	☐
b) Combined lecture and discussion	☐	☐
c) Direct field observation of community conditions and facilities	☐	☐
d) Live examples of actual practice	☐	☐
e) Classroom simulation of practice	☐	☐
f) Film, TV, recordings	☐	☐
g) Training practice in the use of work devices	☐	☐

5) Please check those topics which were included in your 1965 In-Service training curricula for Cottage Parents. (If your institutional system has no Cottage Parents, describe your curricula for CUSTODY STAFF and check here. ☐).

☐ Prison and detention facilities
☐ Casework methods
☐ Interviewing techniques
☐ Personality of offenders
☐ Recent criminological research
☐ Pre-parole planning
☐ Human growth and behavior
☐ Conditions of parole
☐ Appropriate use of firearms
☐ Interrogation techniques
☐ Surveillance techniques
☐ Group Work methods
☐ Laws and rules of evidence
☐ Role of Prosecuting Attorney
☐ Role of law enforcement
☐ Dictation and running records
☐ Cultural characteristics of offenders
☐ Case history file on the inmate
☐ Techniques for controlling the inmate
☐ Rules and procedures for release
☐ Promotions, vacations, travel expenses
☐ Operations of the paroling body
☐ Procedures for reporting rule violations
☐ Rules of proper inmate behavior
☐ Correctional institutions and the law
☐ Impact of the institution on the offender
☐ Impact of the Custodial Officer on the inmate
☐ Techniques and mechanics of arrest
☐ Laws of arrest, search and seizure
☐ Civil rights and liberties of offenders
☐ History and philosophy of this institution
☐ Impact of the Cottage Parent on the juvenile

6) For each pair of statements below, please check which one fits better as a description of your 1965 In-Service training program(s) for Cottage Parents. (If your institutional system has no Cottage Parents, describe your program for CUSTODY STAFF and check here. ☐)

A. The major emphasis of our curriculum content was on:

a) Descriptions and explanations of the nature of criminal activity.

b) Principles and suggestions for direct practice with inmates.

☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.
☐ Both statements fit equally well.

B. Our instruction was intended mainly:

a) To better prepare employees for the conditions of correctional practice which apply in a particular area or system.

---

* If a complete program was repeated, count it twice.

b) To better prepare employees for the conditions of practice which apply generally in the correctional field.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

C. Our instruction was primarily designed to provide:
a) A general introduction—or overview—to the job of Cottage Parent (or Custodial Officer).
b) Detailed information and procedures for carrying out the job of a Cottage Parent (or Custodial Officer).
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

D. As a guide to staff conduct, our instruction emphasized the desirability of relying on:
a) Rules of the institutional system, and suggestions from its administrators.
b) Professional codes, and suggestions from colleagues throughout the field.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

[The employees referred to in the following set of questions are these personnel: (a) Cottage Parents; (b) Custody Staff; (c) Classification and General Counseling Staff; and (d) Diagnostic and Treatment Staff.]

7) Which of the following procedures was *primarily* used to select the employee for his In-Service training program during 1965?

(Check one)
a) Employee selected automatically; new to his particular job ☐
b) Employee selected automatically; by training and/or experience ☐
c) Employee selected by judgment of his supervisor ☐
d) Other procedures ☐

8) A. How often did you have a problem with absenteeism from your 1965 training sessions?
☐ FREQUENTLY ☐ SELDOM ☐ NEVER

B. Which one of the following comes closest to the usual practice of your system during 1965 when an employee was frequently absent from training sessions?

(Check one)
a) No action ☐
b) Employee cautioned and his supervisor notified ☐
c) Employee rebuked and his supervisor asked to account for his absence ☐
d) Employee asked to resign ☐

9) A. How many employees of your institutional system had assignments to train your staff in 1965?

No. of employees	
________	a) Training assignments exclusively.
________	b) Some training assignments—with main assignment as administrator.
________	c) Some training assignments—with main assignment as supervisor.
________	d) Some training assignments—with main assignment as line staff member.

B. Do you have a central Training Unit (Training Center, Training Department, etc.) to plan and organize training throughout your institutional system?
☐ YES ☐ NO

10) A. Who did most of the planning and organizing of your training program(s) during 1965?

________ (name of person) ________ (position)

B. Highest university degree he obtained (circle one):
Associate Bachelor's Master's Doctorate ________ (field)

11) Did you use any outside instructors in your 1965 training sessions? ☐ NO

	Number of persons
a) Staff or administrators from organizations related to your own (e.g., judge, parole administrator)	________
b) University faculty members	________
c) Other (please specify) ________	________

12) A. What means did you generally use to appraise your training program(s) in 1965? (Check as many boxes as apply.)

	Training staff	*Employees in training*	*Administrative staff*	*Research staff*
a) Verbal reports from	☐	☐	☐	☐
b) Written reports from	☐	☐	☐	☐
c) Questionnaires from	☐	☐	☐	☐
d) Other (specify) ________	☐	☐	☐	☐

B. How would you rate the adequacy of your system's resources for training in 1965?
☐ Highly Adequate ☐ Somewhat Adequate ☐ Not Adequate

C. How effective were your training programs—considering the resources at the disposal of your system in 1965?
☐ Highly Effective ☐ Somewhat Effective ☐ Not Effective

In-Service Training Plans for 1966

1) A. Does your institutional system plan to conduct any In-Service training programs during 1966? (If *not*, please continue on the next page with Training Outside Your System and check here. ☐)

We plan programs for these personnel (check as many as apply)	*Personnel (full-time only)*
☐ ________	a) Cottage Parents.
☐ ________	b) Custody Staff.
☐ ________	c) Classification and General Counseling Staff.
☐ ________	d) Diagnostic and Treatment Staff (psychiatrists, social workers, and psychologists only).

B. Approximately how many of these personnel do you expect to be enrolled in any of your 1966 In-Service training programs?

	Expected enrollment
a) Cottage Parents	________
b) Custody Staff	________
c) Classification and General Counseling Staff	________
d) Diagnostic and Treatment Staff	________

SECTION III:
TRAINING OUTSIDE YOUR INSTITUTIONAL SYSTEM: 1965 AND 1966

"Training Outside Your System" consists of training programs for your staff which are conducted by—or co-sponsored with—organizations other than your own.

1) Did your system participate with other organizations in training your staff in 1965?

a) Training by or with a university (e.g., special courses or institutes for which the university does not give credit toward a degree). ☐ NO

YES for: ☐ Cottage Parents; ☐ Custody; ☐ Classification and General Counseling

____
(name of university)

b) Training by or with a professional association (e.g., a State Correctional Officers Association). ☐ NO
YES for: ☐ Cottage Parents; ☐ Custody; ☐ Classification and General Counseling

____
(name of professional association)

c) Training by or with a correctional system other than your own (e.g., county jail personnel attending a program of the State Prison System). ☐ NO
YES for: ☐ Cottage Parents; ☐ Custody; ☐ Classification and General Counseling

____
(name of correctional system)

d) Training by or with a special government training unit (e.g., Personnel Department) ☐ NO
YES for: ☐ Cottage Parents; ☐ Custody; ☐ Classification and General Counseling

____
(name of government training unit)

2) Please check as many of the following arrangements as your system provides for outside training of your Cottage Parents. (If your system has no Cottage Parents, describe your arrangements for CUSTODY STAFF and check here: ☐)

	Were provided in 1965	*Will be provided in 1966*
a) Time to attend special lectures or seminars	☐	☐
b) Time to attend special training courses conducted by other correctional organizations	☐	☐
c) Time to attend special (non-credit) courses in corrections at a university	☐	☐
d) Both time and expenses to attend short-term institutes or workshops	☐	☐
e) Both time and tuition to attend university courses for credit on a part-time basis	☐	☐
f) Scholarships to attend a university degree program full-time while on leave	☐	☐
g) Work-study grants to attend a university degree program full-time while maintaining a partial workload in your system	☐	☐

SECTION IV:
TRAINING COSTS AND RESOURCES

1) Please estimate the total expenditure of your institutional system for training in 1965 and 1966.

A. *Dollar Costs* (if none, write "0")

	Actual costs in 1965	*Probable costs in 1966*
a) Total funds budgeted to your system for training	$________	$________
b) Funds received from external sources, such as foundations (please specify) ________	$________	$________

2) Please check which of the following factors either helped or hindered you in planning or organizing all training program(s) for your system in 1965:

	Helped	*Hindered*
A. *Availability of Resources*		
a) Availability of funds	☐	☐
b) Availability of space	☐	☐
c) Availability of good training staff	☐	☐
d) Availability of university resources	☐	☐
e) Availability of professional resources	☐	☐
f) Availability of consultation on training	☐	☐
g) Other important resource ________	☐	☐
B. *Attitudes and Actions of:*		
a) Staff in the budget department	☐	☐
b) Staff in the personnel department	☐	☐
c) Administrators in other correctional organizations	☐	☐
d) Administrators in social agencies	☐	☐
e) Administrative staff in your institution(s)	☐	☐
f) Supervisory staff in your institution(s)	☐	☐
g) Line staff in your institution(s)	☐	☐
h) Judges in your courts	☐	☐
i) Members of your legislature	☐	☐
j) Other elected officials	☐	☐
k) Members of your Parole Board	☐	☐
l) Other important persons or organizations: ________	☐	☐

SECTION V:
NEW TRAINING GRANTS AND PROGRAMS

1) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special grants for *institution-based* training of correctional manpower, how would you recommend that this money be distributed?

	Recommended	*Not recommended*
a) On a 50/50 matching basis to institutional systems with training programs	☐	☐
b) On the basis of acceptable training proposals	☐	☐
c) On the basis of staff size	☐	☐
d) On a priority basis to systems starting new training programs	☐	☐
e) On a priority basis to systems with a full-time training staff	☐	☐

B. Which of the above are your preferred choices? a b c d e
(circle no more than two)

2) How are you prepared to use additional training funds if they are made available to your system by Congress? (Check as many as apply)
- ☐ a) Salaries for additional training staff.
- ☐ b) Funds for additional physical facilities.
- ☐ c) Salaries for additional staff to cover workloads in order to release employees for training.
- ☐ d) Travel and related expenses for staff to attend training institutes conducted by other organizations.
- ☐ e) Funds for staff to attend university degree programs relevant for correctional practice.
- ☐ f) Our institutional system is not now interested in federal funds for additional training.

3) Which *educational background* do you consider the most suitable for a position as training leader in your system? (assume 5 years of correctional experience) (check one only)
- ☐ a) Master's degree in Sociology.
- ☐ b) Master's degree in Corrections.
- ☐ c) Master's degree in Social Work.
- ☐ d) Master's degree in Police Science.
- ☐ e) Master's degree in Public Administration.
- ☐ f) Other Master's degree ____________________

4) Which *work background* do you consider the most suitable for a position as training leader in your system? (Assume this experience is combined with the education you desire.)
(Check one) Five years of work experience:
- ☐ a) As a staff member in your own institutional system.
- ☐ b) As a staff member in a good correctional institution other than your own.
- ☐ c) As a staff member in corrections and as a training leader in a good social welfare agency.
- ☐ d) As a staff member in corrections and as a faculty member in a university department of corrections.
- ☐ e) As a staff member in corrections and as a faculty member in a university school of social work.

5) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special funds for *university-based* training of correctional manpower, how would you recommend that this money be distributed?

	Recommended	*Not recommended*
a) $3,600 scholarships distributed by correctional organizations to employees on leave as full-time students	☐	☐
b) $3,600 scholarships distributed by university departments designated as appropriate for correctional training	☐	☐
c) Work-study grants to match salaries of correctional employees who enroll as full-time students while maintaining a partial workload at the institution	☐	☐
d) Study grants to match salaries of correctional employees who attend school full-time without any workload	☐	☐
e) Study grants (equivalent to correctional employee salaries) for a summer program of specialized training at a University Correctional Training Center	☐	☐

B. Which of the above are your preferred choices? a b c d e
(circle no more than two)

C. If Congress were to consider establishing a National Institute of Law Enforcement, Criminal Justice and Corrections—following the pattern of the National Institute of Mental Health—would you approve such a development?
- ☐ a) Strongly approve.
- ☐ b) Moderately approve.
- ☐ c) Moderately disapprove.
- ☐ d) Strongly disapprove.
- ☐ e) Indifferent or can't say.

7) A. Do you think it important that a University Center for Training and Research in Law Enforcement, Criminal Justice and Corrections be established in your area?
- ☐ a) Extremely important.
- ☐ b) Quite important.
- ☐ c) Somewhat important.
- ☐ d) Not at all important.

B. If a university in your area were to establish such a Center, what would you recommend to be included in its program?

	Recommended (Check as many as apply)
a) Research on causes and types of criminal and delinquent behavior	☐
b) Research on correctional decisions, processes and outcomes	☐
c) Summer training programs on the application of professional knowledge to correctional practice for graduating students of professional schools	☐
d) Short-term training programs for institutional personnel on the application of professional knowledge to their correctional roles	☐
e) Consultation with institutional systems on innovations of correctional programs, roles and research	☐
f) Small-scale demonstration programs in correctional practice	☐

C. Which of the above are your preferred choices? a b c d e f
(circle no more than two)

D. How many university students who are interested in correctional work do you think would profit from special courses offered by a University Center in your area?

☐ All ☐ Many ☐ A Few ☐ None

8) A. If such a Center were to be established at a university in your area, what personnel would you recommend for its staff?

Recommended (Check as many as apply)

- a) Faculty from those professional schools concerned with correctional training and research ☐
- b) Faculty from those social science departments concerned with correctional training and research ☐
- c) Experienced staff from correctional and related organizations ☐

B. Which of the above do you think should make up the greatest percentage of Center staff? a b c (circle only one)

9) A. What administrative structure would you recommend for such a University Center? (Check here if you feel you have no strong views on desired Center structure ☐)

Recommended (Check as many as apply)

- a) A Center responsible to central university administration ☐
- b) A Center responsible to a university school or department ☐
- c) A Center responsible to correctional organizations and a university school or department ☐
- d) An autonomous Center which is administratively independent of the university and correctional organizations ☐

B. Which of the above would be your first choice? a b c d (circle only one)

10) Assume that substantially greater funds and facilities were made available to educate personnel for the positions listed below. Which University Program Area(s) would you then advocate for each personnel group?

University Program Areas

1. Criminology.
2. Corrections.
3. Law—general.
4. Law—criminal.
5. Police Science.
6. Psychiatry.
7. Psychology—general.
8. Psychology—clinical.
9. Public Administration.
10. Social Work.
11. Sociology—general.

Select (by number from 1-11) the University Program Areas which you advocate for each personnel group.

	University program area in which you strongly advocate a degree (select one area only)	*University program area(s) in which you strongly advocate a series of courses (select as many areas as apply)*
A. *Law Enforcement Personnel*		
a) Administrative Personnel		
b) Police officers—adult division		
c) Police officers—juvenile division		
B. *Court Personnel*		
a) Judges in criminal courts		
b) Judges in juvenile or family courts		
c) Prosecuting Attorneys		
d) Public Defender Attorneys		
C. *Probation and Parole Personnel*		
a) Administrative personnel		
b) Probation/Parole officers—adult division		
c) Probation/Parole officers—juvenile division		
D. *Personnel in Juvenile Institutions*		
a) Administrative personnel		
b) Cottage Parents		
c) Classification and General Counseling personnel		
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel		
e) Custody personnel		
E. *Prison and Reformatory Personnel*		
a) Administrative personnel		
b) Custody personnel		
c) Classification and General Counseling personnel		
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel		

GENERAL INFORMATION

1) Please indicate that title which best describes the position of your immediate superior. (Check here if you are an elected official: ☐.)

Type of Position and Department

☐ a) Commissioner of Public Welfare.
☐ b) Director of Corrections.
☐ c) Chairman of Board of Trustees.
☐ d) Commissioner of Police.
☐ e) Director of Public Safety.
☐ f) Governor.
☐ g) Mayor.
☐ h) Attorney-General.
☐ i) Director of Correctional Institutions.
☐ j) Director of Public Institutions.
☐ k) Chairman of Control or Charities Board.
☐ l) Chief of Probation or Parole.
☐ m) Chief Judge of Criminal Courts.
☐ n) Chief Judge of Juvenile Courts.
☐ o) Director of Youthful Offenders.
☐ p) Director of Children's Services.

OTHER (please specify)____________________

Check here if your system would like a copy of our study report ☐

2) Name of Institutional System ____________________
(main address)

3) Your Name ____________________ (please print) Position ____________________

COMMENTS: (Optional)

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS IN CRIMINOLOGY, CORRECTIONS AND LAW ENFORCEMENT AT UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES

PILOT STUDY OF CORRECTIONAL TRAINING AND MANPOWER

Sponsored by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, and Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, H.E.W.

> **As a respondent in higher education, you will be entitled to a copy of our study report on education and manpower for work with offenders throughout the United States.**
>
> **If you would like a copy of this report, be sure to check on the final page of the questionnaire.**

All the information needed in this questionnaire can be provided simply by check-marks or an occasional brief phrase.

SECTION I:
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR WORK WITH OFFENDERS: 9/1/65–9/1/66

> **This section is concerned with your courses of study in the following fields: (1) Criminology/Social Deviance; (2) Corrections; (3) Law Enforcement. All three of these fields will hereafter be referred to as Crime and Delinquency fields.**

1) A. Does your department offer credit courses in the field of Criminology/Social Deviance? (For project purposes, this is the study of causes and responses to crime and delinquency as social or psychological phenomena.)

☐ No such courses offered during this academic year, 1965–66.

☐ Yes ____
(approximate number of such courses being offered this academic year)

B. If YES, do these courses make up a "Concentration" of at least 12 credit hours*?

☐ a) Yes, on the undergraduate level.
☐ b) Yes, on the graduate level.
☐ c) Some courses but not a "Concentration."

2) A. Does your department offer credit courses in the field of Corrections/Correctional Administration? (For project purposes, this is the practice and administration of programs for prevention, control and treatment of offenders.)

☐ No such courses offered during this academic year, 1965–66.

☐ Yes ____
(approximate number of such courses being offered this academic year)

B. If YES, do these courses make up a "Concentration" of at least 12 credit hours*?

☐ a) Yes, on the undergraduate level.
☐ b) Yes, on the graduate level.
☐ c) Some courses but not a "Concentration."

3) A. Does your department offer credit courses in the field of Law Enforcement/Police Science/Police Administration? (For project purposes, this is the practice and administration of programs for detection and apprehension of offenders.)

☐ No such courses offered during this academic year, 1965–66.

☐ Yes ____
(approximate number of such courses being offered this academic year)

B. If YES, do these courses make up a "Concentration" of at least 12 credit hours*?

☐ a) Yes, on the undergraduate level.
☐ b) Yes, on the graduate level.
☐ c) Some courses but not a "Concentration."

> *** A "Concentraton," for project purposes, is 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study. In most colleges this would constitute at least a Minor program of study.**

4) Does your department offer a "Concentration" in any field, *other* than these mentioned above, which is designed to train for work with juvenile or adult offenders? ☐ NO

☐ Yes ____
(please specify title of "Concentration" and degree level(s).)

5) A. Will your department's resources for the Crime and Delinquency fields be more or less extensive in the coming academic year than in 1965–66? (Check only those resources covering both years.)

	More extensive in 1966/67	*About the same*	*Less extensive in 1966/67*
a) Course offerings in these fields	☐	☐	☐
b) Field placements in correctional or law enforcement agencies	☐	☐	☐
c) Number of students in these fields	☐	☐	☐
d) Number of degrees in these fields	☐	☐	☐
e) Number of full-time faculty for these fields	☐	☐	☐
f) Research projects in these fields	☐	☐	☐

B. Will your department offer any new "Concentration" in a Crime and Delinquency field next year? ☐ **NO**

☐ **Yes** ______________ (degree level) ______________ ("concentration")

6) Please check which of the following factors either helped or hindered the planning or organizing of educational programs in Crime and Delinquency fields for your department this academic year.

	Helped	*Hindered*
A. ***Availability of Resources***		
a) Availability of funds	☐	☐
b) Availability of space	☐	☐
c) Availability of good faculty	☐	☐
d) Availability of good students	☐	☐
e) Size of faculty load	☐	☐
f) Availability of suitable agencies for field placements	☐	☐
B. ***Attitudes and Actions of:***		
a) Personnel in the University administration	☐	☐
b) Personnel within your own department	☐	☐
c) Personnel in other University departments	☐	☐
d) Faculty Senate or University committees	☐	☐
e) Personnel in correctional and law enforcement organizations in the community	☐	☐
f) Other important persons or organizations ______________	☐	☐

SECTION II:
"CONCENTRATIONS" IN CRIME AND DELINQUENCY FIELDS

This section is concerned with those of your educational programs which include a "Concentration" of 12 or more credit hours in a Crime and Delinquency field. If your department does not offer any such Concentration, please check here and continue with Special Programs on p. 6 ☐.

1) A. Approximately how many students in your department are now enrolled with a "Concentration" in the following fields?

	Enrolled undergraduate students	*Enrolled graduate students*
	(approximate)	
a) Criminology/Social Deviance		
b) Corrections/Correctional Administration		
c) Law Enforcement/Police Science/Police Administration		
d) Other related field(s) ______________ (please specify)		

B. Approximately how many of these students attend school full-time?

a) Undergraduate	0%	25%	50% (circle one)	75%	100%
b) Graduate	0%	25%	50% (circle one)	75%	100%

2) A. Did the following factors enter into your selection of students in 1965/66?

	Required	*Preferred*	*Neither required nor preferred*
a) Did it matter whether the applicant was currently employed in a law enforcement or correctional agency?	☐	☐	☐
b) Did it matter whether the applicant met age and physical qualifications for employment in a law enforcement or correctional agency?	☐	☐	☐
c) Did it matter whether the applicant's tuition was guaranteed by a law enforcement or correctional agency?	☐	☐	☐

B. Approximately what proportion of your students who are enrolled with a "Concentration" in Crime and Delinquency are receiving a scholarship worth $1000 or more for this academic year?

None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

3) What is the approximate number of degrees that will be granted through your department this academic year to students with a "Concentration" in the Crime and Delinquency fields?

a) ______________ (no. of Associate Degrees)
b) ______________ (no. of Bachelor Degrees)
c) ______________ (no. of Master Degrees)
d) ______________ (no. of Doctorate Degrees)

4) A. Does your department require a field placement (or internship) as part of a "Concentration"? ☐ **NO**

If YES: How many hours?	*Total number of placement hours required for graduation*
a) Criminology/Social Deviance	
b) Corrections/Correctional Administration	
c) Law Enforcement/Police Science/Police Administration	
d) Other related field(s) ______________ (please specify)	

B. If a field placement is required, in which types of agencies were students located during this academic year?

	Approximate number of students placed
a) Probation/Parole agencies	
b) Correctional institutions	
c) Law enforcement agencies	
d) Other type of agency ______________	

C. What proportion of these agencies provide a member of their staff to instruct your students in field work?

None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

5) A. a) What proportion of your faculty have as their major assignment the field work instruction of students placed in agencies?

None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

b) Is there a faculty member in your department who has full-time responsibility for planning and organizing field work placements? ☐ YES ☐ NO

B. Of those who are teaching in the Crime and Delinquency fields, how many are considered by your university administration as:

a) ______________ Full-time faculty of your department.
(number)

b) ______________ Part-time faculty of your department.
(number)

6) Please check the types of positions that those of your undergraduates with a "Concentration" in the Crime and Delinquency fields *usually* fill upon graduation.

	Type of position filled by students with undergraduate degrees (check as many as apply)
a) Law Enforcement officer	☐
b) Probation or Parole officer	☐
c) Correctional Institution staff member	☐
d) Full-time graduate student	☐
e) Other ______________	☐

7) Which of the following conditions generally governed those faculty teaching in the Crime and Delinquency fields this academic year?

a) Faculty salaries depend on funds made available through a law enforcement or correctional agency:
☐ For all faculty.
☐ For at least one of the faculty. ☐ For none of the faculty.

b) Faculty are employees of a law enforcement or correctional agency:
☐ All faculty.
☐ At least one faculty member. ☐ None of the faculty.

c) Faculty are able to advocate practices which directly contradict the regulations of law enforcement or correctional agencies within your state:
☐ Whenever their professional judgment so indicates.
☐ Upon prior approval of specified faculty or administrators.
☐ Faculty required to endorse state and local regulations.

8) For each pair of statements below, check which one fits better in describing that "Concentration" in the fields of Crime and Delinquency which contains the greatest number of your students.

A. The major emphasis of our curriculum content is on:
a) Descriptions and explanations of the nature of criminal activity.
b) Principles and suggestions for direct practice with suspected or adjudicated offenders.
☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.

B. Our instruction is intended mainly:
a) To better prepare students in a Crime and Delinquency field for the conditions of practice which apply in a particular area or system.
b) To better prepare students in a Crime and Delinquency field for the conditions of practice which apply generally.
☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.

C. Our instruction is primarily designed to provide:
a) A general introduction—or overview—to the practitioner's job in a Crime and Delinquency field.
b) Detailed information and procedures for carrying out the practitioner's job in a Crime and Delinquency field.
☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.

D. As a guide to practitioner conduct, our instruction emphasizes the desirability of relying on:
a) Agency rules, and suggestions from administrators in the employing agency.
b) Professional codes, and suggestions from colleagues in his profession.
☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.

SECTION III:
SPECIAL NON-CREDIT PROGRAMS

1) A. Does your department conduct special courses, institutes or workshops aimed at personnel groups who work with offenders (exclude courses for academic credit)?

Check as many as apply:	*Conducted in 1965/66*	*Will be conducted in 1966/67*
a) Probation/Parole Officers	☐	☐
b) Probation/Parole Supervisors or Administrators	☐	☐
c) Parole Board members	☐	☐
d) Police	☐	☐
e) Administrators of Correctional Institutions	☐	☐
f) Correctional Officers	☐	☐
g) Cottage Parents	☐	☐

h) Prosecuting Attorneys	☐	☐
i) Public Defenders	☐	☐
j) Criminal Court Judges	☐	☐
k) Family or Juvenile Court Judges	☐	☐
l) Other (please specify)________	☐	☐

B. Were any of these special programs co-sponsored by correctional or law enforcement organizations? ☐ NO

a) ☐ Yes; co-sponsored by a correctional organization.
b) ☐ Yes; co-sponsored by a law enforcement organization.

2) A. Please check any of the following types of Crime and Delinquency Centers which exist at your university. (Do *not* include short-term or summer courses, institutes or workshops conducted annually or semi-annually—or Centers established solely for research.) ☐ No such Center exists at our university.

Check as many as apply:

☐ a) Center for Police Training.
☐ b) Center for Correctional Administration.
☐ c) Crime or Delinquency Control Center.
☐ d) President's Committee Training Center.
☐ e) Youth Studies Center.
☐ f) Other type of Crime and Delinquency Training Center.

B. ______________________________ ______________________________
(name of center checked above) *(director)*

SECTION IV:
NEW EDUCATIONAL PLANS AND GRANTS

This secton is concerned with new educational plans and grants for preparing students to work with offenders in various agencies of law enforcement, criminal justice or corrections.

Please indicate your views on desirable education for these work roles even if your department has no immediate plans for specialized training of this nature.

1) If Congress were to consider establishing a National Institute of Law Enforcement, Criminal Justice and Corrections—following the pattern of the National Institute of Mental Health—would you approve such a development?

☐ a) Strongly approve
☐ b) Moderately approve
☐ c) Moderately disapprove
☐ d) Strongly disapprove
☐ e) Indifferent or can't say

2) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special funds for Universities to train students so they are prepared for work with offenders, which of the following would you recommend?

	Recommended	*Not recommended*
a) Grants for additional faculty in those departments currently engaged in such training	☐	☐
b) Grants for additional faculty in those departments planning to institute such training	☐	☐
c) Grants to expand the physical facilities of those departments currently engaged in such training	☐	☐
d) Grants to expand the physical facilities of those departments planning to institute such training	☐	☐
e) Grants to individual faculty for research on problems related to working with offenders	☐	☐

B. How is your department prepared to use additional funds in training students for work with offenders if such funds are made available by Congress?

Check as many as apply:

☐ a) Salaries for additional faculty.
☐ b) Funds for additional physical facilities.
☐ c) Scholarships to your students.
☐ d) A Crime and Delinquency Training Center responsible to your department.
☐ e) Our department is not now interested in federal funds for additional training of students to work with offenders.

3) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special funds for *university-based* training of manpower to work with offenders, how would you recommend that this money be distributed?

	Recommended	*Not recommended*
a) $3600 scholarships distributed by practice agencies to employees on leave as full-time students	☐	☐
b) $3600 scholarships distributed by university departments designated as appropriate for training students to work with offenders	☐	☐
c) Work-study grants to match salaries of agency employees who enroll as full-time students while maintaining a partial agency workload	☐	☐
d) Study grants to match salaries of agency employees who attend school full-time without any agency workload	☐	☐
e) Study grants (equivalent to practitioner salaries) for a summer program of specialized training at a University Crime and Delinquency Center	☐	☐

B. Which of the plans outlined above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e
(circle no more than two)

4) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special grants for *agency-based* training of manpower to work with offenders, how would you recommend that this money be distributed?

	Recommended	*Not recommended*
a) On a 50/50 matching basis to agencies with training programs	☐	☐
b) On the basis of acceptable training proposals	☐	☐
c) On the basis of staff size	☐	☐
d) On priority basis to agencies starting new training programs	☐	☐
e) On a priority basis to agencies with a full-time training staff	☐	☐

B. Which of the above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e

(circle no more than two)

5) A. Do you think it important that University Centers for Training and Research in law enforcement, criminal justice and corrections be established in various parts of the country?

☐ a) Extremely important
☐ b) Quite important
☐ c) Somewhat important
☐ d) Not at all important

B. Do you think it important to establish a Crime and Delinquency Center of this kind at your own university (or college)?

☐ a) Extremely important
☐ b) Quite important
☐ c) Somewhat important
☐ d) Not at all important
☐ e) We already have such a Center

6) A. If your university were to establish (or has) a Crime and Delinquence Center, what would you recommend to be included in its program?

	Recommended *(check as many as apply)*
a) Research on causes and types of criminal & delinquent behavior	☐
b) Research on practice decisions, processes and outcomes in work with offenders	☐
c) Summer training programs for graduate students of professional schools on the application of professional knowledge to work with offenders	☐
d) Short-term training programs for agency practitioners on the application of professional knowledge to their work with offenders	☐
e) Consultation with agencies working with offenders on innovations in programs, roles and research	☐
f) Small-scale demonstration programs on work with offenders	☐

B. Which of the programs outlines above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e f

(circle no more than two)

C. How many students who are interested in work with offenders do you think would profit from special courses offered by a Crime and Delinquency Center at your university?

☐ All ☐ Many ☐ A Few ☐ None

7) A. If a Crime and Delinquency Center were to be established (or already exists) at your university, what personnel would you recommend for its staff?

	Recommended *(check as many as apply)*
a) Faculty from those professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders	☐
b) Faculty from those social science departments concerned with training and research for work with offenders	☐
c) Experienced staff from agencies which work with offenders	☐

B. Which *one* of the above do you think should make up the greatest percentage of Center staff?

a b c

(circle one only)

8) If Congress were to allocate funds, what is your estimate of the proportion of Federal funds which would likely be required to establish and maintain a Crime and Delinquency Center at your University for a 3-year experimental period?

Check one:	*Federal Government share*	*University share*
☐	100%	0%
☐	75%	25%
☐	50%	50%
☐	25%	75%
☐	Not feasible at our University under any such funding arrangement.	

9) A. What administrative structure would you recommend for a Crime and Delinquency Center at your university? (Check here if you feel you have no strong views on desired Center structure. ☐)

	Recommended *(check as many as apply)*
a) A Center responsible to central university administration	☐
b) A Center responsible to your department	☐
c) A Center responsible to another department or school at your university	☐
d) A Center responsible to practice agencies and a university school or department	☐
e) An autonomous Center which is administratively independent of the university and practice agencies	☐

B. Which of the above would be your first choice? a b c d e

(circle one only)

10) A. Do you approve or disapprove of universities (colleges) offering programs such as these listed below?

	Approve as degree programs at the University	*Approve only as special (noncredit) University programs*	*Disapprove of these programs at the university*
a) Undergraduate programs with a "Concentration"* in Police Science	☐	☐	☐
b) Graduate programs with a "Concentration" in Police Science	☐	☐	☐
c) Undergraduate programs with a "Concentration" in Corrections	☐	☐	☐
d) Undergraduate programs with a "Concentration" in Social Welfare	☐	☐	☐
e) Master of Social Work programs with a "Concentration" in Corrections	☐	☐	☐
f) LL.B. (J.D.) programs with a "Concentration" in Criminal Law	☐	☐	☐

B. Do you think that the Police College whose students are required to be employees of law enforcement agencies should be part of a public university?
a) ☐ Approve; b) ☐ Disapprove; c) ☐ No opinion

C. Do you think that a college degree should be awarded to student-employees of the Police College located at a Public University upon completion of the prescribed course of study?
a) ☐ Approve; b) ☐ Disapprove; c) ☐ No opinion

---

* 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study.

11) Assume that substantially greater funds and facilities were made available to educate personnel for the positions listed below. Which University Program Area(s) would you then advocate for each personnel group?

University Program Areas

1. Criminology
2. Corrections
3. Law—general
4. Law—criminal
5. Police Science
6. Psychiatry
7. Psychology—general
8. Psychology—clinical
9. Public Administration
10. Social Work
11. Sociology—general

Select (by number from 1–11) the Unversity Program Areas which you advocate for each personnel group.

	University program area in which you strongly advocate a degree (select one area only)	*University program area(s) in which you strongly advocate a series of courses (select as many areas as apply)*
A. *Law Enforcement Personnel*		
a) Administrative personnel		
b) Police officers—adult division		
c) Police officers—juvenile division		
B. *Court Personnel*		
a) Judges in criminal courts		
b) Judges in juvenile or family courts		
c) Prosecuting Attorneys		
d) Public Defender Attorneys		
C. *Probation and Parole Personnel*		
a) Administrative personnel		
b) Probation/Parole officers-adult division		
c) Probation/Parole officers-juvenile division		
D. *Personnel in Juvenile Institutions*		
a) Administrative personnel		
b) Cottage parents		
c) Classification and Assignment personnel		
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel		
E. *Prison and Reformatory Personnel*		
a) Administrative personnel		
b) Correctional Officers		
c) Classification and Assignment personnel		
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel		
e) General Counseling personnel		

12) Which *educational background* do you consider the most suitable for a position as assistant professor in your department: (Assume five years of good experience as a college instructor and in working with offenders).

Graduate Degree in:

☐ a) Sociology
☐ b) Corrections
☐ c) Social Work
☐ d) Police Science
☐ e) Public Administration
☐ a) Other ________________

13) Which *work background* do you consider the most suitable for a position as assistant professor in your department: (Assume this experience is combined with the education you desire)

Five years of work experience:

☐ a) As a law enforcement officer and administrator.
☐ b) As a practitioner and administrator in a correctional agency other than law enforcement.
☐ c) Teaching and research in a school of social work.
☐ d) Teaching and research in a university department of corrections.
☐ e) Teaching and research in a university department of social science.
☐ f) Other ____

GENERAL INFORMATION

(Name of university [or college])

(Name of department)

(Your name—please print)

Position

Do any other departments at your university (college) offer a substantial number of courses in the Crime and Delinquency fields? ☐ NO

☐ YES (Names of departments) 1. ______

Please check here if your department would like a copy of our study report ☐

EDUCATION FOR CORRECTIONAL PRACTICE IN DOCTORAL PROGRAMS OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

PILOT STUDY OF CORRECTIONAL TRAINING AND MANPOWER

Sponsored by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency,
and Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, H.E.W.

As a respondent in professional education, you will be entitled to a copy of our study report on education and manpower for work with offenders throughout the United States.

If you would like a copy of this report, be sure to check on the final page of the questionnaire.

All the information needed in this questionnaire can be provided simply by **check-marks** or an occasional brief phrase.

SECTION I:
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR WORK WITH OFFENDERS: 9/1/65–9/1/66

This section is concerned with your classroom courses and internship training for clinical psychology practice in Correctional settings. For project purposes, these settings include probation, parole, correctional institutions, and other programs directed to the prevention, care and treatment of delinquents and adult offenders.

1) A. How many students were awarded a Doctoral degree through your Clinical Psychology Program in the academic year 1965/66? ____________
(approximate number)

B. Approximately, what proportion of these students were trained so they can practice in Correctional settings?
None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

2) A. Approximately, what proportion of the courses offered in your Clinical Psychology Program helps to train students for practice in Correctional settings?
None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

B. Did your Doctoral program in the academic year 1965/66 include any internships in Correctional settings?
☐ YES ☐ NO

3) Did your Doctoral program for the academic year 1965/66 include any *classroom* courses in Criminology/Social Deviance? (For project purposes, these are courses to study the causes and responses to crime and delinquency as social or psychological phenomena).
(check as many as apply)
☐ a) No classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance; material included in our generic courses.
☐ b) No classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance; material covered in our courses in Corrections.
☐ c) No classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance; material covered in our courses in Social Science.
☐ d) Yes, we offered ____________ classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance.
(number)

4) Did your Doctoral program for the academic year 1965/66 include any *classroom* courses in Clinical Psychology for practice in Corrections? (For project purposes, these are courses specifically designed to train students for practice or administration of programs in the prevention, care and treatment of delinquents and adult offenders).
(check as many as apply)
☐ a) No classroom course in Corrections; material included in our generic classroom courses.
☐ b) No classroom course in Corrections; material included in internship training in Correctional settings.
☐ c) Yes, we offered ____________ classroom courses in Corrections.
(number)

5) What was the size of your faculty during the academic year 1965/66?
a) ____________ Full-time faculty for your Clinical Psychology Program.
(number)
b) ____________ Part-time faculty for your Clinical Psychology Program.
(number)

6) A. What was the approximate proportion of your Doctoral students in Clinical Psychology who received a scholarship worth $1,000 or more for the academic year 1965/66?
None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

B. What was the approximate proportion of your Doctoral students in Clinical Psychology who received a scholarship worth $3,600 or more for the academic year 1965/66?
None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

7) A. Are your resources *more* or *less* extensive in this academic year than in 1965/66 for internship training and classroom courses in Correctional practice and Criminology/Social Deviance?

	More in 1966/67	*About the same*	*Less in 1966/67*
a) Internships in Correctional agencies	☐	☐	☐
b) Classroom courses at the Doctoral level	☐	☐	☐
c) Number of Doctoral students in these courses	☐	☐	☐
d) Number of full-time faculty for these courses	☐	☐	☐
e) Research projects in these fields	☐	☐	☐

B. Please check those kinds of new courses your Clinical Psychology Program has added to its curriculum for the academic year 1966/67.

☐ a) Classroom course(s) in Criminology/Social Deviance.
☐ b) Classroom course(s) in Clinical Psychology for practice in Corrections.
☐ c) Internship(s) in new Correctional agencies.

SECTION II:
COURSES IN CRIMINOLOGY/SOCIAL DEVIANCE AND CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY FOR PRACTICE IN CORRECTIONS DURING THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1965/66

If your Doctoral program did not offer internship training or classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance or Clinical Psychology for Practice in Corrections, please check here and continue with Special Programs on page 5 ☐.

1) A. How much time was required in internship training for your Doctoral degree in Clinical Psychology?

_______________ (number of hours per week) _______________ (total number of weeks)

B. Approximately how many students in your Doctoral program had internships in Correctional settings?

_______________ (approximate number of students)

2) A. What was your total enrollment in the following classroom courses:

	Approximate number of students
a) Doctoral courses in Criminology/Social Deviance	________
b) Doctoral courses in Clinical Psychology for practice in Corrections	________

B. Please check the types of positions usually filled by those of your Doctoral students who go into Correctional settings upon graduation from the Clinical Psychology program.

	Type of position (*check as many as apply*)
a) Treatment or Consultant Roles in Probation/Parole or Court Clinics	☐
b) Supervisor or Administrator in Probation and Parole	☐
c) Correctional Institution staff member	☐
d) Supervisor or Administrator in Correctional Institution	☐
e) Other Correctional position	☐

3) Of those who were teaching classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance and/or Clinical Psychology for practice in Corrections, how many were considered by your University Administration as:

a) _______________ (number) Full-time faculty of your Department.
b) _______________ (number) Part-time faculty of your Department.
c) _______________ (number) Faculty members whose assignments were mainly in other departments or schools of the University.

4) Which of the following conditions generally govern those of your faculty who are teaching field or classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance or Clinical Psychology for practice in Corrections?

a) Faculty s[illegible] depend on funds made available through a correctional agency:
☐ For all [illegible]ty.
☐ For at least 1 faculty member. ☐ For none of the faculty.

b) Faculty are employees of a correctional agency:
☐ All faculty.
☐ At least one faculty member. ☐ None of the faculty.

c) Faculty are able to advocate practices which directly contradict the regulations of correctional agencies within your state:
☐ Whenever their professional judgment so indicates.
☐ Upon prior approval of specified faculty or administrators.
☐ Faculty required to endorse state and local regulations.

5) For each pair of statements below, please check which one fits better as a description of your Doctoral courses in Clinical Psychology for practice in Corrections.*

A. The major emphasis of our curriculum content is on:
a) Descriptions and explanations of the nature of criminal activity.
b) Principles and suggestions for direct practice with suspected or adjudicated offenders.
☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.

B. Our instruction is intended mainly:
a) To better prepare students for the conditions of Correctional practice which apply in a particular area or system.

---

* You will recall that these are courses specifically designed to train students for practice or administration of programs in the prevention, care and treatment of delinquents and adult offenders.

b) To better prepare students for the conditions of practice which apply generally in the Correctional field.
☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.

C. Our instruction is primarily designed to provide:
a) A general introduction—or overview—to the practitioner's job in a Correctional field.
b) Detailed information and procedures for carrying out the practitioner's job in a Correctional field.
☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.

D. As a guide to practitioner conduct, our instruction emphasizes the desirability of relying on:
a) Agency rules and suggestions from administrators in the employing agency.
b) Professional codes and suggestions from colleagues in the profession.
☐ Statement (a) fits better.
☐ Statement (b) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.

SECTION III:
SPECIAL NON-CREDIT PROGRAMS

1) A. Does your Department conduct special courses, institutes or workshops aimed at personnel groups who work with offenders (exclude courses for academic credit)?

	Conducted in 1965/66	*Conducted or will be conducted in 1966/67*
a) Probation/Parole Officers	☐	☐
b) Probation/Parole Supervisors or Administrators	☐	☐
c) Parole Board Members	☐	☐
d) Police	☐	☐
e) Administrators of Correctional Institutions	☐	☐
f) Correctional Officers	☐	☐
g) Cottage Parents	☐	☐
h) Prosecuting Attorneys	☐	☐
i) Public Defenders	☐	☐
j) Criminal Court Judges	☐	☐
k) Family or Juvenile Court Judges	☐	☐
l) Other (please specify)	☐	☐

m) No such special program; not part of our professional education ☐

B. Were any of these special programs co-sponsored by Correctional organizations? ☐ YES ☐ NO

SECTION IV:
NEW EDUCATIONAL PLANS AND GRANTS

This section is concerned with new educational plans and grants for preparing students to work with offenders in various agencies of law enforcement, criminal justice or corrections.

Please indicate your views on desirable education for these work roles even if your Department has no immediate plans for specialized training of this nature.

1) If Congress were to consider establishing a National Institute of Law Enforcement, Criminal Justice and Corrections—following the pattern of the National Institute of Mental Health—would you approve such a development?
☐ a) Strongly approve ☐ c) Moderately disapprove
☐ b) Moderately approve ☐ d) Strongly disapprove
☐ e) Indifferent or can't say

2) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special funds for universities to train students so they are prepared for work with offenders, which of the following would you recommend?

	Recommended	*Not recommended*
a) Grants for additional faculty in those schools and departments currently engaged in such training	☐	☐
b) Grants for additional faculty in those schools and departments planning to institute such training	☐	☐
c) Grants to expand the physical facilities of those schools and departments currently engaged in such training	☐	☐
d) Grants to expand the physical facilities of those schools and departments planning to institute such training	☐	☐
e) Grants to individual faculty for research on problems related to working with offenders	☐	☐

B. How is your Department prepared to use additional funds in training students for work with offenders if such funds are made available by Congress?
(check as many as apply)
☐ a) Salaries for additional faculty.
☐ b) Funds for additional physical facilities.
☐ c) Scholarships to your students.
☐ d) A Crime and Delinquency Training Center responsible to your Department.
☐ e) Our Department is not now interested in federal funds for additional training of students to work with offenders.

3) A. Do you think it important that University Centers for Training and Research in law enforcement, criminal justice and corrections be established in various parts of the country?

☐ a) Extremely important ☐ c) Somewhat important
☐ b) Quite important ☐ d) Not at all important

B. Do you think it important to establish a Crime and Delinquency Center of this kind at your own University (or College)?

☐ a) Extremely important ☐ c) Somewhat important
☐ b) Quite important ☐ d) Not at all important
☐ e) We already have such a Center

4) A. If your University were to establish (or has) a Crime and Delinquency Center, what would you recommend to be included in its program?

	Recommended (check as many as apply)
a) Research on causes and types of criminal and delinquent behavior	☐
b) Research on practice decisions, processes and outcomes in work with offenders	☐
c) Summer training programs for graduate students of professional schools on the application of professional knowledge to work with offenders	☐
d) Short-term training programs for agency practitioners on the application of professional knowledge to their work with offenders	☐
e) Consultation with agencies working with offenders on innovations in programs, roles and research	☐
f) Small-scale demonstration programs on work with offenders	☐

B. Which of the programs outlined above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e f
(circle no more than two)

C. How many students who are interested in work with offenders do you think would profit from special courses offered by a Crime and Delinquency Center at your University?

☐ All ☐ Many ☐ A few ☐ None

5) A. If a Crime and Delinquency Center were to be established (or already exists) at your University, what personnel would you recommend for its staff?

	Recommended (check as many as apply)
a) Faculty from those professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders	☐
b) Faculty from those social science departments concerned with training and research for work with offenders	☐
c) Experienced staff from agencies which work with offenders	☐

B. Which *one* of the above do you think should make up the greatest percentage of Center staff?

a b c
(circle one only)

6) A. What administrative structure would you recommend for a Crime and Delinquency Center at your University. (Check here if you feel you have no strong views on desired Center structure. ☐)

	Recommended (check as many as apply)
a) A Center responsible to central university administration	☐
b) A Center responsible to your Department	☐
c) A Center responsible to another department or school at your University	☐
d) A Center responsible to practice agencies and a university school or department	☐
e) An autonomous Center which is administratively independent of the university and practice agencies	☐

B. Which of the above would be your first choice?

a b c d e
(circle one only)

7) A. Do you approve or disapprove of universities (colleges) offering programs such as those listed below?

	Approve as degree programs at the university	*Approve only as special (noncredit) university programs*	*Disapprove of these programs at the university*
a) Undergraduate programs with a "Concentration"* in Police Science	☐	☐	☐
b) Undergraduate programs with a "Concentration" in Corrections	☐	☐	☐
c) Undergraduate programs with a "Concentration" in Social Welfare	☐	☐	☐
d) Master of Social Work programs with a "Concentration" in Corrections	☐	☐	☐
e) LL.B. (J.D.) programs with a "Concentration" in Criminal Law	☐	☐	☐
f) Ph.D. programs in Clinical Psychology with a "Concentration" in Correctional practice	☐	☐	☐

B. Do you think that the Police College whose students are required to be employees of law enforcement agencies should be part of a public university?

☐ Approve ☐ Disapprove ☐ No opinion

C. Do you think that a college degree should be awarded to student-employees of the Police College located at a public university upon completion of the prescribed course of study?

☐ Approve ☐ Disapprove ☐ No opinion

---

* 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study.

8) Assume that substantially greater funds and facilities were made available to educate personnel for the positions listed below. Which University Program Area would you then advocate for each personnel group?

University Program Areas

1. **Criminology**
2. **Corrections**
3. **Law—general**
4. **Law—criminal**
5. **Police Science**
6. **Psychiatry**
7. **Psychology—general**
8. **Psychology—clinical**
9. **Public Administration**
10. **Social Work**
11. **Sociology—general**

	Select (by number from 1–11) the University Program Area in which you advocate a degree for each personnel group ***(select one area only)***
A. *Law Enforcement Personnel*	
a) Administrative personnel	______
b) Police officers—adult division	______
c) Police officers—juvenile division	______
B. *Court Personnel*	
a) Judges in criminal courts	______
b) Judges in juvenile or family courts	______
c) Prosecuting Attorneys	______
d) Public Defender Attorneys	______
C. *Probation and Parole Personnel*	
a) Administrative personnel	______
b) Probation/Parole officers-adult division	______
c) Probation/Parole officers-juvenile division	______
D. *Personnel in Juvenile Institutions*	
a) Administrative personnel	______
b) Cottage parents	______
c) Classification and Assignment personnel	______
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel	______
E. *Prison and Reformatory Personnel*	
a) Administrative personnel	______
b) Correctional Officers	______
c) Classification and Assignment personnel	______
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel	______
e) General Counseling personnel	______

GENERAL INFORMATION

1) ______________________________
(Name of your university)

2) ______________________________ **Position** ______________________
(your name) (please print)

3) Do any other schools or departments at your University offer a substantial number of courses which prepare students for practice with offenders? ☐ **NO**
☐ **YES (Names of schools or departments) 1.** ______________________
2. ______________________

4) Please check those factors which either helped or hindered your Department during 1965/66 in planning or organizing internships or classroom courses in Clinical Psychology for Correctional practice.

	Helped	***Hindered***
A. *Availability of Resources*		
a) Availability of funds	☐	☐
b) Availability of space	☐	☐
c) Availability of good faculty	☐	☐
d) Availability of good students	☐	☐
e) Size of faculty load	☐	☐
f) Availability of suitable agencies for internships	☐	☐
B. *Attitudes and Actions of:*		
a) Personnel in the University administration	☐	☐
b) Personnel within your own Department	☐	☐
c) Personnel in other schools or departments of the University	☐	☐
d) Faculty Senate or University committees	☐	☐
e) Personnel in Correctional organizations in the community	☐	☐
f) American Psychological Association and its related committees	☐	☐

Please check here if you would like a copy of our study report. ☐

References

Administration and Staff Training in Institutions for Juvenile Delinquents, Children's Bureau Publication 377, 1959.

American Bar Association, "Law Schools on the Approved List of A.B.A., 1964," *Review of Legal Education, Law Schools and Bar Admission Requirements in the United States* (Chicago: Fall, 1964), pp. 4–16.

American Correctional Association, *Directory, State and Federal Correctional Institutions of the United States of America, Canada, England, and Scotland* (Washington, D.C.: 1965).

American Council on Education, *American Colleges and Universities* (Washington, D.C.: 1964).

———, *American Junior Colleges* (Washington, D.C.: 1963).

American Psychiatric Association, *Training the Psychiatrist to Meet Changing Needs, Report of the Conference on Graduate Psychiatric Education* (Washington, D.C.: 1964).

American Psychological Association, "Directors of Training, APA Approved Graduate Departments of Psychology 1965–66," (unpublished).

American Psychologist, vol. 13, 1958.

"Approved Residencies—Psychiatry," *The Journal of the American Medical Association,* 194, (October–December 1965), pp. 227–235.

Barker, Robert L., and Thomas L. Briggs, *Trends in the Utilization of Social Work Personnel: An Evaluative Research of the Literature,* National Association of Social Workers, Rept. No. 2 (mimeographed).

Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated).

California Probation, Parole, and Correctional Association, *The Practitioner in Corrections* (Arcadia, Calif.: 1967).

Children's Bureau, *Institutions Serving Delinquent Children—Guides and Goals* (Washington, D.C.: 1962).

Council on Social Work Education, *Budgetary Estimate for New Schools* (mimeographed, August 10, 1967).

———, *Graduate Professional Schools of Social Work in Canada and the U.S.A.* (New York: January, 1965).

———, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1965* (New York: 1966).

———, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966* (New York: 1967).

Council of State Governments, the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Juvenile Delinquency—A Report on State Action and Responsibilities* [prepared for the Governor's Conference Committee on Juvenile Delinquency (Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1962)].

Directory for Exceptional Children (Boston: Porter Sargent, 1965).

Edelman, Sheldon K., "President's Message," *Correctional Psychologist,* December 1965, pp. 1–2.

Lawrence, Charles E., *Directory of Public Training Schools Serving Delinquent Children* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Children's Bureau, 1964).

Lovejoy's College Guide (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1966).

National Association of Social Workers, *Goals of Public Social Policy* (New York: rev. ed., 1966).

———, *Workbook of the Committee on the Study of Competence* (mimeographed, 1967).

National Commission for Social Work Careers of the National Association of Social Workers, *Manpower—A Community Responsibility* (New York: 1968).

———, *What Every Recruiter Should Know: 1965–66 Facts about Social Work Manpower Supply and Demand* (New York: undated).

National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *Crime and Delinquency,* vol. 13, no. 1, January 1967.

———, *Directory of Detention Homes* (New York: 1964).

———, *Probation and Parole Directory, United States and Canada* (New York: 1963).

———, *Standards and Guides for the Detention of Children and Youth* (New York: 1961).

National Institute of Mental Health, Training Branch, *Survey of Funding and Expenditures for Training of Mental Health Personnel, 1960–61* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, January 1963).

National Police Chiefs and Sheriffs Information Bureau, *The National Directory of Law Enforcement Administrators* (Milwaukee, 1965).

New York State Department of Corrections, *Career Opportunities in Correctional Work* (New York: 2d. ed., 1966).

New York State Department of Social Welfare, *Directory of Child-Caring Institutions and Agencies* (New York: 1962).

Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Projections of Educational Statistics to 1975–1976* (Washington, D.C.: 1966).

Piven, Herman, "Patterns of Education in Four Professions as Related to Practice Competence" (mimeographed, 1968).

———, and Abraham Alcabes, *The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968), vol. 1, *Probation/Parole.*

——— and ———, *Education and Training for Criminal Justice—A Directory of Programs in Universities and Agencies (1965–67)* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968), J.D. Publication No. 78.

——— and ———, *Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement* (Washington, D.C.: Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968), Source Books I to IV.

President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society* (Washington, D.C.: 1967).

———, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967).

Prigmore, Charles S. (ed.), *Manpower and Training for Corrections: Proceedings of an Arden House Conference, June 24–26* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1966).

———, (ed.), *The Expansion of Correctional Field Placements and Internships* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1965).

Proceedings of the Ninetieth Annual Congress of Correction of the American Correctional Association (New York: 1960).

Psychiatry and Juvenile Delinquency, report of the Task Force on Juvenile Delinquency of the Committee on Psychiatry of Childhood and Adolescence (unpublished).

Ross, Sherman, "Internships for Doctoral Training in Clinical Psychology Approved by the American Psychological Association," *American Psychologist,* vol. 20, 1965.

Russell, Bernard, "Current Training Needs in the Field of Juvenile Delinquency," *Juvenile Delinquency Facts and Facets* (Washington, D.C.: Children's Bureau, 1960), No. 8.

Stamm, Alfred M., "1967 Social Work Graduates: Salaries and Characteristics," *Personnel Information,* vol. 11, No. 2, March 1968, pp. 1 and 50–54.

Studt, Elliot, and Bernard Russell, *Staff Training for Personnel in Institutions for Juvenile Delinquents,* Children's Bureau Publication 364.

Training Branch, National Institute of Mental Health, *Survey of Funding and Expenditures for Training of Mental Health Personnel, 1960–61* (Washington, D.C.: January 1963).

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, *Summaries of Training Projects,* Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act (Washington, D.C.: 1965).

Sources Used to Compile Directory of Academic Departments Cited as Offering an Educational Program in a Crime and Delinquency Field

Adams, William T., *An Interstate Approach to Juvenile Delinquency Research and Training: A Survey* (Boulder, Color.: Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education, August, 1963).

American Correctional Association, *Professional Correctional Administration,* Ad-Hoc Committee Rept., 1962.

Boolsen, Frank M., *Directory of Colleges and Universities Offering Preparatory Programs for Careers in Law Enforcement-Criminalistics-Corrections* (3d ed., mimeographed, 1961).

Cartter, Allan N. (ed.), *American Universities and Colleges* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 9th ed., 1964).

Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education* (New York: 1964).

Gammage, Allan, *Police Training in the United States* (Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1963).

Gleazer, E. J., Jr. (ed.), *American Junior Colleges* (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 6th ed., 1963).

Grant, Charles E., Untitled Listing of Colleges and Universities Giving Courses in Police Training (International Association of Chiefs of Police, 1965).

Greenblatt, Bernard, "Staff and Training for Juvenile Law Enforcement in Urban Police Departments," *Juvenile Delinquency Facts and Facets,* No. 13 (Washington, D.C.: Children's Bureau, 1960).

Lovejoy, Clarence E., *Lovejoy's College Guide* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 8th ed., 1966).

National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Current Projects in the Prevention, Control and Treatment of Crime and Delinquency* (Bethesda, Md.: National Institute of Health, 1962–65), vols. 1–6.

———, *Newsletter of the Information Center on Crime and Delinquency* (New York: 1964–66).

National Institute of Mental Health, *Mental Health Trainee Stipends in Social Work 1964–65* (Bethesda, Md.: 1964–65).

Northwestern University School of Law, *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology, and Police Science* (Chicago: 1957–62).

President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, *Summaries of Training Projects Funded Under Public Law 87–274* [Washington, D.C.: September 1963 (with addendum covering period through March 1964)].

Swanson, L., and R. Myren, *A List of Short Term Juvenile Problem Institutes for Police; and Colleges and Universities Offering Two and Four Year Degree Programs in Policing* (Washington, D.C.: Children's Bureau, March 1962).

UNESCO, *The University Teaching of Social Sciences and Criminology* (Paris: 1957).

Index

A

Administrative structure of Crime and Delinquency Center (*see* Crime and Delinquency Center)
Administrators,
  number employed, 7, 72, 73
  official vacancies for, 8, 72, 73
  as primary source of standards, 13, 25–26, 45
  shortage rate of, 8, 72
Agencies, Criminal Justice,
  consultation for,
    at Crime and Delinquency Center, 67, 68
  educational standard maintained by (*see* Education recommended)
  fieldwork training,
    suitable for, 17–18, 31–32, 51
    willingness to provide, 19, 37–38, 54
  importance of Crime and Delinquency Center to, 2, 67
  as joint administrators of Center, 69
  number of, 4
  recommendations for Center administrative structure by, 69
  salaries in, 20–21, 59–60
  training programs at Center for personnel of, 68
Alcabes, Abraham, 1n, 2n, 4n, 14n, 24n, 25n, 30n, 41n, 49n, 50n, 59n, 81n
American Bar Association, 84
American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology, 28, 84
American Council on Education, 81n
American Correctional Association, 5n, 6n, 13n, 23n, 33n, 76n
American Psychiatric Association, 28n, 35
American Psychological Association, 26n, 27, 35, 38, 84
Anthropology, departments of,
  social work programs in, 47
Arden House Conference,
  educational qualifications of correctional institution personnel by, 18, 34

B

Barker, Robert L., 67n
Behavior,
  research on,
    criminal and delinquent, 68–69
Briggs, Thomas L., 67n
Bureau of Labor Statistics,
  on number employed in social welfare positions, 46, 47n, 49, 56n, 57n, 58n

C

California Probation, Parole and Correctional Association, 18
Classification and general counseling staff,
  cost to produce, 54–56, 66
  expected recruitment of qualified personnel for, 48–50, 65
  functions of, 44
  number employed, 7, 44–45, 62–63, 74, 75
  number needed, 8, 44–45, 55, 56, 63, 75
  official vacancies of, 8, 44–45, 55, 56, 63, 75
  salaries of, 59–60
  shortage rates of, 8, 44–45, 63, 75
Clinical personnel (*see* Clinical psychology, Psychiatry and Social work)
Clinical psychology,
  availability of graduates in, 27–29
  education,
    advocated to qualify diagnostic and treatment personnel, 25–26, 30, 32–35, 64–65
    training patterns in, 30
  graduates,
    available for recruitment, 27, 29, 65
    competition for, 27
    cost to produce, 39–41
    increase in, 27
    number of, 26–27
      with correctional field experience, 27
      positions filled by, 27
      school evaluation of, 27
      specialization of, 27
  Ph.D. degree in, 26–27
  schools,
    accreditation of, 26
    conditions within, 30–32
    correctional internships for, 27
      number of students in, 27
    location of, 26
    number of, 26
    patterns of training for Criminal Justice in, 30, 35–37, 66–67, 68
    population and sample described, 26, 84–85
    specialized programs in corrections in, 30, 35–37, 38
      legitimacy of, 30–31, 35–37
      readiness for expansion of, 31–32
    training resources needed by, 32
  support of correctional programs in, 38–39
  training for diagnostic and treatment personnel,
    consensus and divergence on standards for, 30, 32–35
Colleges (*see* Universities)
Conference on Graduate Psychiatric Education of the American and Canadian Psychiatric Associations, (*see* American Psychiatric Association)
Consultation (*see* Crime and Delinquency Center)
Correctional administration,
  defined, 14
  degree programs in, 14–15
Correctional institutions (*see also* Correctional systems and Jails)
  correctional personnel in,
    number employed in, 7–10, 60, 72–75
    number needed in, 7–10, 60, 72–75
    official vacancies in, 7–10, 60, 72–75
    shortage rates in, 7–10, 60, 72–75
  definition of, 4n
  educational standard maintained by, 13–15, 45–47
  facilities,
    number of, 6
  fieldwork training, 17, 32, 33
    willingness to provide, 19, 37–38, 54
  location of, 5
  major systems, 5–6, 13, 76–77
  number of, 4–7
  population and sample described, 4–6, 13, 76–77
Correctional systems,
  costs of providing qualified personnel for, 65–67, 70
  number of, in the United States, 62n, 71n
  number of custody staff employed in, 62–63, 73
  number of custody staff needed in, 63–64, 73
  number of personnel employed in, 62–63, 72–75
  number of personnel needed in, 63–64, 72–75
  number of treatment staff employed in, 62–63, 73–75
  number of treatment staff needed in, 63–64, 73–75
  qualified personnel available for, 63–65
Corrections,
  classroom courses in,
    schools which offer, 14–15
  concentration in, 14–15
  concurrence on training in, 15–16, 17–18
  cost to produce graduates in, 20–21
  defined, 14
  degree programs in, 14–15
  expanding pool of graduates in, 15, 19–20
  field placements in,
    agencies to provide, 19–20
  legitimacy of undergraduate programs in, 16, 18–19
  number of graduates in, 19, 65
  readiness for expansion by departments of, 16
  resources needed by departments of, 17
  support for programs with concentration in, 19–20
  as university degree area recommended, 13–14, 15–16, 17–18

- Costs, school,
  - to produce graduates for corrections, 20–21, 39–41, 54–59, 70
  - scholarship per student, 20, 54
- Cottage parents,
  - number employed, 7–8
  - official vacancies, 8
  - shortage rate of, 8
- Council on Medical Education, 28, 84
- Council on Social Work Education, 35, 39n, 47n, 48n, 49n, 54, 57n, 58n, 81n, 84
  - accreditation of schools by, 48
- Crime and Delinquency Center,
  - administrative structure of, 69
  - consultation for agencies at, 68
  - demonstration programs at, 69
  - existing, population and sample described, 86–87
  - funding for, 70
  - importance of,
    - to academic institutions, 2, 67–68
    - to Criminal Justice agencies, 2, 67–68
  - priorities for programs at, 68–69
  - research at, 68–69
  - scholarships for, 70
  - staff of,
    - interdisciplinary, 69
    - interinstitutional, 69
    - predominant source of, 69
  - students for, 68–70
  - training programs at, 68
- Criminology, 13–14
  - defined, 15n
- Custody staff,
  - cost to produce, 1, 20–21, 66
  - education recommended, 13–14, 16, 17–18, 64–66
  - expected recruitment of qualified personnel for, 15, 64–65
  - number employed, 6–7, 11–12, 62–63, 73
  - number needed, 1, 8, 11–12, 15, 63, 73
  - official vacancies of, 8, 11–12, 15, 63, 73–74
  - shortage rates of, 8–9, 11–13, 63, 73–74

D

- Degrees, academic (*see* Clinical psychology, Corrections, Psychiatry and Social work)
- Demonstration (*see* Crime and Delinquency Center)
- Diagnostic and treatment staff,
  - cost to produce, 39–41, 66
  - education recommended, 25–26, 30, 32–35, 64–66
  - expected recruitment of qualified personnel for, 27–29, 65
  - number employed, 7, 23–24, 62–63, 73, 75
  - number needed, 8, 23–24, 63, 73–74, 75
  - official vacancies of, 8, 23–24, 63, 73, 75
  - shortage rates of, 8–9, 23–25, 63, 74–75

E

- Edelman, Sheldon K., 27n
- Education recommended for,
  - classification and general counseling staff,
    - by academic executives, 51–52
    - by correctional institution executives, 45–46
    - by Criminal Justice executives, 51–52
    - by President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 53
    - by social work deans, 50–51
    - by Special Task Force on Correctional Standards, 52–53
  - custody staff,
    - by academic executives, 17
      - of departments with corrections concentration, 16
    - by Arden House Conference, 18
    - by California Probation, Parole and Correctional Association, 18
    - by correctional institution executives, 13–14
    - by Criminal Justice executives, 18
    - by New York State Department of Correction, 18
    - by President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 17–18
  - diagnostic and treatment staff,
    - by academic executives, 33
      - of clinical psychology programs, 30
      - of psychiatric residency centers, 30
      - of social work schools, 30
    - by correctional institution executives, 26
    - by Criminal Justice executives, 33
- Education typical of,
  - classification and general counseling personnel, 45–47
  - custody personnel, 14
- Educational standards (see Education recommended for)
- Employed, number of correctional institution personnel (*see* Administrators, Classification and general counseling staff, Cottage parents, Custody staff, Diagnostic and treatment staff, Manpower for corrections)
- Etiology,
  - criminal, 68–69
- Evaluation,
  - of students by school, 27, 28, 48
- Expansion,
  - of agencies needed for placements, 19–20, 31–32, 51
  - faculty needed for, 17, 31–32, 51
  - funds for, 16–17, 31–32, 51
  - manpower training costs for, 20–22, 39–41, 54–59
  - of physical facilities, 17, 32, 51
  - readiness of schools for, 16, 31–32, 51
  - selective, of M.S.W. specialists, 41, 55–56
  - space needed for, 17, 31–32, 51
  - students needed for, 17, 32–33, 51
  - training resources for, 16–17, 32–33, 51, 67–70

F

- Faculty,
  - work overload of, 17, 32–33, 51
- FBI, 5n, 71n, 86n
- Field experience,
  - correctional institutions suitable to provide, 17, 32–33, 51
  - correctional institutions, willingness to provide, 19, 37–38, 54
  - integral part of professional education, 27, 28, 48
- Funding,
  - required for establishment and maintenance of Center, 70
  - for stipends (*see* Scholarships)
  - for expansion of,
    - class and field courses, 16–17, 31–33, 51
    - faculty salaries, 16–17, 31–33, 51
    - physical facilities, 16–17, 31–33, 51
    - scholarships, 16–17, 31–33, 51

G

- Golann, Stuart E., 35n

J

- Jails, 4n, 5n, 71–75
  - administrative staff in,
    - number employed, 72, 73
    - official vacancies of, 72, 73
    - shortage rates of, 72
  - classification and general counseling staff in,
    - number employed, 74–75
    - number needed, 75
    - official vacancies of, 75
    - shortage rates of, 75
  - custody staff in,
    - number employed, 73
    - number needed, 73
    - official vacancies of, 73–74
    - shortage rates of, 73–74
  - diagnostic and treatment staff in,
    - number employed, 73–75
    - number needed, 73–75
    - official vacancies of, 73, 75
    - shortage rates of, 74, 75
  - number of staff employed in, 72–75
  - number of staff needed in, 72–75
  - official vacancies in, 72–75
  - population and sample described, 71
  - shortage rates of staff in, 72–75
- Jones, Donald R.,
- Juvenile institutions (*see* Correctional institutions)

L

- Law (criminal), 13
  - LL.B. (J.D.) programs with concentration in, 67–68
  - Law (general), 13
- Law enforcement systems,
  - population and samples of major systems described, 79–80
- Law schools, 16
  - number of, 4
  - patterns of training for Criminal Justice in, 67–68
  - population and sample described, 84–85
- Lawrence, Charles E., 5n, 6n, 76n
- Legitimacy of,
  - specialized professional programs in corrections, 30–31, 36–43
    - by college presidents, 30–31, 36
    - by deans of law schools, 30–31, 36
    - by deans of social work schools, 30–31, 51
    - by directors of clinical psychology programs, 30–31, 36
    - by directors of psychiatric residency centers, 30–31, 36
  - undergraduate programs in corrections, 16, 18–19
    - by chairmen of corrections departments, 16
    - by college presidents, 19
    - by deans of law schools, 19
    - by deans of social work schools, 19
    - by directors of clinical psychology programs, 19
    - by directors of psychiatric residency centers, 19

M

- Manpower for corrections (*see also* Correctional institutions, Correctional systems, Jails, and Probation/parole)
  - crisis, 1, 21, 41, 45, 60
  - employed, 7, 11–12, 23–24, 44–45, 62–63, 72–75
  - needed, 7–10, 11–13, 23–25, 44–46, 62–66, 72–75
  - schema for analysis, 1–4
- Manpower pool,
  - expansion of graduates for, 16, 20–22, 32–33, 39–41, 54–59
- M.S.W. programs in corrections,
  - support for, 30–31, 51, 53–54
- McCrea, Tully, 37n
- Methodology, 4–7, 26, 28, 47–48, 71, 76–87

N

- National Association of Social Workers, 35, 48n, 56n, 57n, 59n
- National Commission for Social Careers, 48, 55, 56, 57n, 59n
- National Council on Crime and Delinquency, 5n, 14n, 23n, 24n, 29n, 34, 39n, 41n, 49, 52n, 57n, 58n, 78n
- National Institute of Mental Health, 39n, 54n
- National Police Chiefs and Sheriffs Information Bureau, 79n
- New York State Department of Correction, 18
- New York State Department of Social Welfare, 5n, 6n, 76n

O

- Office of Education, 20n

P

- Pins, Arnulf M., 54n
- Piven, Herman, 1n, 2n, 4n, 14n, 24n, 25n, 30n, 35n, 41n, 49n, 50n, 59n, 81n
- Police science, 13, 15
  - undergraduate program with concentration in, 19
- President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, 11n, 17, 18n, 21n, 22n, 23n, 24n, 29n, 33n, 39, 41n, 44n, 52n, 53, 57n, 58n, 59
- Pre-social work, 47
- Prigmore, Charles S., 34n
- Probation/parole (*see also* Correctional systems) 24–25, 58, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66
  - applicability of Schema to, 2–4
  - corrections graduates in, 15n
  - population and sample of major systems described, 78
  - willingness to provide fieldwork, 37
- Professional complex,
  - conditions within,
    - for expansion of Criminal Justice programs, 17–20, 32–39, 51–54
- Professional schools, (*see also* Clinical psychology, Law, Psychiatry, Social work)
  - training programs at Center for graduates of, 68
- Psychiatric social work (*see* Social work)
- Psychiatrists (*see* Psychiatry)
- Psychiatry, 14
  - education,
    - advocated to qualify diagnostic and treatment personnel, 30, 32–35
    - training patterns in, 30–31
  - graduates, 28
    - available for recruitment, 27–28, 29, 65
    - cost to produce, 39–41
    - expanding pool of, 31–33
    - increase in, 28
    - number of, 28
      - with Criminal Justice specialization, 28
  - psychiatric residency centers,
    - accreditation of, 28
    - conditions within, 30–32
    - location of, 28
    - number of, 28
    - patterns of training for Criminal Justice in, 30–31, 68
    - population and sample described, 28, 84–85
    - specialized Criminal Justice programs in, 30–31, 35
      - legitimacy of, 30–31, 35
      - readiness for expansion of, 31–32
    - training resources needed by, 32–33
  - support for Criminal Justice programs in, 38–39
  - training for diagnostic and treatment personnel,
    - consensus and divergence on standards for, 30, 32–35
- Psychology, 37
- Psychology (clinical) (*see* Clinical psychology)
- Psychology (general), 14
- Public Administration, 14
- Public assistance (*see* Social work)

Q

- Qualifications (*see* Education)
- Questionnaires,
  - for colleges and universities, 83, 97–103
  - for correctional institutions, 4–5, 76, 88–96
  - for doctoral programs of clinical psychology, 26, 84, 104–108

R

- Recruitment,
  - expected number of qualified personnel for, 15, 26–29, 48–50, 67
- Research (*see also* Crime and Delinquency Center)
  - applied criminological, 68–69
  - etiological, 68–69
- Resources for training,
  - agencies for field placements, 17, 32–33, 37–38, 51
  - Crime and Delinquency Center, 32, 67–70
  - faculty, 17, 32–33, 51
  - funds, 17, 32–33, 51
  - physical facilities, 17, 32–33, 51
  - salaries, 32
  - scholarships, 16, 32
  - students, 17, 32–33, 51
- Ross, Sherman, 38n
- Russell, Bernard, 34

S

- Salaries,
  - for additional faculty, 16, 32
  - in correctional institutions, 21, 59–60
  - law enforcement officers, 21n
  - of M.S.W. graduates, 59–60
- Sample populations, 4–6, 26, 28, 47–48, 71, 76–87
- Schema, 1–4
  - applicability of, 2–4
  - dimensions of, 1–4
- Scholarships,
  - cost per student, 20, 39n, 54
  - for training at Crime and Delinquency Center,
    - of agency personnel, 70
    - of new graduates, 70
  - to students, 16, 32, 54n

- School evaluation,
  - of master's degree graduates, 48
- Social welfare,
  - distribution of labor force in, 49, 56–58
  - number of departments listed as, 47
  - school training patterns for, 57–58
- Social work,
  - availability of graduates in, 28–29, 47–50
  - education,
    - advocated to qualify personnel, 14
      - classification and general counseling, 45, 50–53
      - diagnostic and treatment, 30, 32–35
    - training patterns in, 30–31, 56–59
  - graduates,
    - available for recruitment, 28–29, 47–50, 65
    - competition for, 48–49
    - cost to produce, 39–41, 54–59
    - expanding pool of, 29–41, 50–59
    - increase in, 29, 50
    - number of, 28–29, 47–48
      - in correctional institution systems, 45–47
      - with correctional field experience, 48–49
  - school evaluation of, 48
  - share for recruitment to correctional institution systems, 28–29, 48–50, 56–59
  - specialization of, 30–31, 48–50
    - psychiatric social work, 56–58
    - public assistance, 57–58
  - schools,
    - accreditation of, 48
    - conditions within, 30–32, 50–51
    - correctional field placements for, 37–39, 48, 51, 54
      - proportion of students in, 48
    - students in, 37–39, 48, 51
    - location of, 47–48
    - number of, 47
    - patterns of training for Criminal Justice in, 30–31, 35, 66–67, 68
    - population and sample described, 28, 84–85
    - specialized programs in corrections in,
      - legitimacy of, 30–31, 35–37, 51, 53
      - readiness for expansion of, 31–32, 51
      - support for correctional programs in, 37–39, 51, 54
      - training resources needed by, 32–33, 51
  - students,
    - distribution in field instruction of, 56–58
  - training for corrections,
    - consensus and divergence on standards for, 26, 30, 32–35, 50–53
  - undergraduate degree programs in, 47
- Sociology, 14, 16, 19
  - departments of,
    - corrections concentrations in, 19
    - social work programs in, 47
- Space,
  - needed for expansion of programs, 16–17, 32–33, 51
- Special Task Force on Correctional Standards (*see* President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice)
- Staff, Center, (*see* Crime and Delinquency Center, staff of)
- Stamm, Alfred M., 59n, 60n
- Standard, educational (*see* Education recommended for)
- Studt, Elliot, 34n
- Supervisors (*see* Administrators)

T

- Training,
  - institutes (*see* Crime and Delinquency Center)
  - resources,
    - needed for,
      - agencies for field placements, 32–33, 51
      - funds, 32–33, 51
      - good faculty, 32–33, 51
      - good students, 32–33, 51
      - lower faculty workload, 17, 32–33, 51
      - space, 16–17, 32–33, 51

U

- U.S. Bureau of Prisons, 44n, 71n
- U.S. Children's Bureau, 34, 39n
- U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 20n
- Universities and colleges,
  - as administrators of Crime and Delinquency Centers, 69
  - population and sample described, 81–83
- University complex,
  - conditions within (*see* Professional complex)

V

- Vacancies (*see* Correctional institutions)

W

- Witte, Ernest., 34, 39n
- Workhouses (*see* Jails)

☆ U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1969 0—329-463